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Educational News and Editorial Comment

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

The eight items for our "Here and There" in this issue have been reported from secondary schools in seven states in the East, South, Midwest, and Far West. The practices reported are again as diverse as their geographic sources are widespread, since they include an endowment fund, free reading, a booklet on manners, a plan for spreading news of the school, a "social-betterment week," an experiment in pupil self-marking, pupil co-operation in campus improvement, and a course in mental hygiene.

A high-school endowment fund.—The Graveraet High School of Marquette, Michigan, has for ten years been enjoying the benefits of an endowment fund of a hundred thousand dollars, which is a gift made by Louis G. Kaufman in memory of his mother, Juliet Graveraet Kaufman. The principal of the high school, H. J. Anderson, reports that the income from the fund is used for two purposes: an annual lyceum course and scholarships and awards.

As described by Principal Anderson, the lyceum course consists of eight first-class numbers and is scheduled primarily for pupils of the high school, about 90 per cent of whom attend. Remaining seats are sold to the general public at "a very nominal price." The programs of the course "are not to be confused with the ordinary assembly

numbers that are popular in some high schools," as "only first-class numbers by artists of national and international reputation" are scheduled. The distribution of seats is on the basis of pupils' attendance at all programs, and the plan of administration involves a careful check on attendance. Pupils having no unexcused absences in any year are given a season ticket for the ensuing year. All other pupils desiring tickets must report to the superintendent's office for tickets to single events. A girls' honorary society supplies ushers for all programs, the ushers appearing in uniforms harmonizing with the general setting of the auditorium. The ushers report the numbers of all vacant seats. It is Principal Anderson's belief that the programs are becoming increasingly popular with pupils in spite of the "heavy" character of an occasional number. Pupils are learning to become good listeners, and their auditorium behavior is very good—"often superior to that of the adults." Interest seems to be greatest in dramatic programs, perhaps because dramatics is emphasized in the school. Illustrated lectures on travel and adventure rank second in popularity.

The income from the endowment also provides an annual scholarship of one thousand dollars and merit medals and fifty-dollar awards "for boy and girl leadership, scholastic ability in the junior and senior high school, and excellence in literary composition and in artistic production." An award is made also for excellence in athletics.

An experiment in free reading.—In the Lincoln High School of Cleveland, Ohio, of which Neil D. Mathews is principal, experiments in free reading have been conducted over a period of several semesters. At hand are reports covering four semesters, made by Mrs. Lenore L. Anders, teacher of English in the school, to the Research Department of the Cleveland system. The experimentation is concerned with pupils in Grade IX of low "probable learning rate (P.L.R.)." During the early weeks of the first semester of experimentation, it was assumed that, with modification, the regular course of study might be used, but, "in spite of everything that was done, the pupils were not interested, and many were obviously bored." Because the pupils especially disliked the assigned books, it was decided to try a plan of free reading. From themes written by

the pupils the types of books enjoyed were ascertained; it was also learned that many did not like to read books and, unless compelled to do so, read none. The librarian was asked to assemble books which the teacher thought the classes might enjoy reading, and mystery, animal, western, and love stories were placed on special tables. The experimental classes were taken to the library during the class period. Pupils were permitted to go from table to table or to the book shelves. Although an effort was made to help pupils find suitable books, no pressure was used to induce them to take particular books. At first they were permitted to use class time for reading. If they disliked the books that they had taken out, they were sent to the library during class time to find others. The teacher used various means to stimulate interest in books, such as talking about them and indicating on a chart containing the names of the pupils completion of reports on books read. It was noticed that many pupils came to class carrying trashy magazines, which they read at every opportunity, and an attempt was made in various ways, but without compulsion, to improve tastes in periodical literature.

In continuing the changed procedure with new groups of pupils during the second semester, the teacher made certain improvements in the setup of the experiment. In the new arrangement control groups were provided of pupils who were comparable in P.L.R. and who were following the conventional procedure of studying required books, and a standardized reading test was administered at the beginning and near the close of the semester. In conferences individual pupils were informed of their reading ages and reading grades, and efforts were made to ascertain reading interests and to motivate interest in reading. Subsequently some definite drill was given to improve comprehension. Otherwise the procedure was the same as that during the first semester.

A conclusion drawn by Mrs. Anders from the work of the two semesters is that without question the pupils are much happier when allowed to choose their own books. "Any spirit of antagonism and unrest disappears. They can generally be led to read many more books than in a regular course, and many times will read of their own accord some of the books in the regular course of study." The experimental classes showed much greater gains in reading grade than the

control classes: the advance in medians for the experimental class in Grade IX B was from 6.3 to 9.2, while for the control class in the same grade it was from 6.1 to 7.1; and the gain for the experimental class in Grade IX A was from 7.0 to 11.2, while for the control class in this grade it was from 7.0 to 7.4.

Limitations of space here prompt us to omit report on the experimentation during the third semester and to close with a brief statement concerning the fourth semester. The plan of the experiment in this semester included five classes, three with drill work and two without drill work of any kind. In all classes, as in the experimentation during preceding semesters, the regular course in composition and grammar was followed. In the two classes without drill the time that was devoted to such work in the other classes was given over to the study of poetry. The average gains in reading grade turned out to be about the same for the two procedures, although it is the feeling of the teacher that one semester is too short a time to determine the relative values of the procedures. On the basis of the four semesters of trial, Mrs. Anders concludes that the procedure of free reading is justified by "the mere fact that so many pupils have learned to read with pleasure and with greater ease."

A booklet on manners.—Secondary schools are giving increasingly systematic attention to the inculcation of good manners in their pupils. A new instance of special emphasis is afforded in Central High School of Kansas City, Missouri, of which Otto F. Dubach is principal. The method of emphasis is the free distribution to all pupils in the school of a booklet called *The Central Way—A Little Guide in Social Usage*. The pamphlet was prepared by Miss Virginia E. Robertson, of the department of speech in the school, and was published by the department of printing. In the Foreword Miss Robertson states that no attempt has been made to be exhaustive but that only those rules have been chosen which touch most closely "our high-school needs." She reports the co-operation of several teachers and of pupil leaders in the preparation of the manuscript. A brief introductory statement touching on the basis of manners is followed by sections listing items of appropriate behavior under headings like "General Rules," "Manners in the Classroom," "Manners in the Halls," "At Home or Abroad," "On the Street," "In

Public Gatherings," "Introductions," and "Dinners Formal and Informal." The booklet carries mention of a price of ten cents for single copies.

One high school's plan for spreading its news.—Some years ago Shortridge High School of Indianapolis, Indiana, of which George Buck is principal, extended its newspaper correspondence with the three daily papers of the city to two neighborhood or community papers, the *Spectator* and the *North Side Topics*, which had asked for the material. At present, besides the dailies, four north-side community papers and five such papers in other sections of the city receive and publish weekly news of activities of the school shared by pupils living in the respective advertising districts of the papers. The news is written in a class in journalistic correspondence directed by Miss Grace Shoup of the English department. The members of this class are selected from a class in journalistic composition, also taught by Miss Shoup. The class includes also the correspondents for the three daily newspapers, who are paid regular column-inch rates by the papers. The other correspondents receive no remuneration except the training. Frequent notes and telephone calls attest the wide influence of this network of school news. Smaller items concerning individual performance are used in the community papers than would make suitable stories for the dailies, and thus excellent work in the school, both in curriculum and extra-curriculum, has greater opportunity to be recorded.

Social-betterment week.—The Senior High School of North Little Rock, Arkansas, is making plans for its second annual "Social-Betterment Week." According to the principal, R. A. Cox, the plan was tried last year, and the successful operation of the scheme justifies continuing it. The schedule of the school includes an activity period each day for clubs, home rooms, and assemblies. During the special week these activities were set aside, and the period was used each day for the social-betterment program.

The girls of the entire school met in the auditorium during the activity period with the county probation officer, Mrs. W. P. McDermott, and discussed together such topics as social hygiene, personality, and charm. The boys, because there was no other single meeting place large enough, met in three groups and considered

topics similar or analogous to those discussed by the girls. Leading men of the community were selected to meet with the boys, each man specializing on a topic and rotating from day to day to the different groups. The week was climaxed by an all-school assembly on Friday, at which Reverend Gaston Foote, the speaker, rounded out the program. Follow-up work was carried on in succeeding weeks by home-room programs and clubs, more especially by the Girl Reserve and the Hi-Y.

The plans for the current school year will be much like those for last year with the possible exception that the boys will meet in one group and the girls in smaller sections.

An experiment in pupil self-marking.—H. C. Lanks, a teacher in the high school of the Jenkintown (Pennsylvania) School District reports the experiences and the results of an experiment in pupil self-marking. The experimental group was a twelfth-year class of twenty-one pupils in social problems, which emphasizes economic aspects. Current events are an important part of the subject matter. A basic textbook and a weekly paper are used, and pupils are encouraged to do wider reading on each topic considered. The dominant instructional procedure in the course is discussion, and it provides ample opportunity for pupil participation.

In the experiment, rankings and marks assigned by the teacher and those assigned by pupils were compared statistically. The bases of the teacher's ranks and marks were individual daily judgments, these judgments being averaged at the end of each report period. In the plan followed to secure rankings and marks by the pupils, the first step was distribution to the pupils of an alphabetical list of members of the class. Pupils were instructed to strike off their own names from the list and to write down the remaining names in the order of excellence of pupil performance. The names on the written lists were numbered consecutively, and the rankings were summed to determine the ranking by pupils for the report period. The evidence thus gathered made possible comparison of the ranks given individual pupils by teacher and by pupils.

Mr. Lanks was interested also in comparing marks as determined by teacher and by pupils. Letter marks assigned by him to pupils on the basis of the averages of his ratings were compared with letter

marks assigned in the same proportions (as the marks assigned by him) on the basis of the numerical rankings by pupils. Also, literal marks assigned by the teacher in a distribution following the "normal curve" were compared with marks following the same distribution based on the numerical rankings by pupils.

Coefficients of correlation were computed from the rankings and the two sets of marks given by teacher and by pupils. Correlations were secured for each of the three marking periods of the course and for the averages of the three periods. The correlation between the teacher's judgments and those of the pupils for the averages of the rankings was found to be .86; for the averages of the actual distribution of marks, .83; and for the averages in the normal distribution of marks, .49. The investigator explains the lower figure for the last correlation by the "greater number of arbitrary factors involved" and mentions in particular the artificial character of the distribution of marks. The size of the coefficients increased for each of the three comparisons from the first to the second report period and again from the second to the third report period, and the investigator is of the belief that the increasing degree of relationship was "due in a large extent to the increased familiarity of the pupils with the aims of the teacher and what he was trying to measure."

Mr. Lanks concludes that there "seems to be sufficient evidence to justify serious consideration of the possibility of pupil ranking. It seems that such rankings may be safely used as an element in determining pupils' marks." He points out, however, that there would be many factors to be considered in deciding how far to carry the plan. He warns also that care must be exercised to have the psychological setting appropriate for such an experiment. In his opinion, the procedure has particular value for the course in social problems because it offers a means of inculcating certain of the habits and attitudes that are the objectives of the course, such as "fairness, consideration of others, and orientation of self." Besides, "it offers the finest opportunity for the practice of the democratic ideal."

Pupil co-operation in campus improvement.—The senior high school of South Pasadena, a residential suburb for business and professional men of Los Angeles, has had extensive pupil co-operation in

the work of improving the campus of thirteen acres. John E. Alman, principal, reports that a few years ago beginnings were made toward covering all bare ground with cement or grass. Today, thanks to the efforts of pupil organization and the co-operation of the Board of Education, the campus is without bare ground except for a few places now in process of being covered. The turf sites include a beautiful football field, a girls' playing field, and two acres of ground, all in bluegrass, as a front lawn. Pupils have become much interested in the project of a new and beautiful campus. Outgoing Senior classes have left sums of money with which to make improvements, some of the improvements so far completed being a sundial, a fountain, a tiled outdoor drinking fountain, trees, shrubbery, flowers, new fences, ornamental gates, an outdoor eating-place, and drive-ways. The new interest has added to the student body organization a "department of campus" headed by a Senior elected by the pupils. The purpose of the department is to work with the principal in planning further improvements. Other features of the whole program are an active committee that works to keep the campus clean and free from trash; a talk each month in assembly by the chairman of the campus committee; and signs, placed on the lawn by the campus committee, which read "Please use walks." It is Principal Alman's belief that this new interest in the campus has created a spirit of good citizenship which is reflected in the discipline of the school, for discipline has been a matter of little or no concern for a number of years.

A course in mental hygiene in the senior high school.—The secondary schools, in the opinion of J. B. Geisel, principal of Alpena (Michigan) High School, have probably never slighted the factual side of education, and in them of late years the fundamental importance of abilities has come into its own. Adjustment, as illustrated by mental hygiene and the ability to get on with others, he feels to have been neglected: "it is high time for an awakening in secondary schools on the importance of adjustment education." Ideally considered, he urges, mental hygiene should pervade all teaching. Teachers, however, are not yet equipped for this emphasis, and, to fill the gap until teachers are ready and to develop a consciousness of the need, the teaching of a course in mental hygiene is justified.

A course in this area is being taught in the advanced classes of Alpena High School. In response to a special request Principal Geisel has supplied a list of divisions of the course as taught, but at the same time he advises that the outline cannot show "the hundred and one practical principles of mental health that make up the stuff of the divisions." A notation on the outline is to the effect that the emphasis throughout the course is on normality, not abnormality. Following are the divisions.

1. Temporary definition
2. Physiology of the nervous system
3. Insight: attitudes for growth and rebuilding of personality
4. Master drives: to protect one's self, to love, to have power, to be with people, and to worship (a study of the temporary dominance of each drive)
5. Emotions: fear, disgust, wonder, anger, dejection, elation, and love (a study of each in relation to individual peace of mind)
6. Emotional maturity and immaturity: definition and specific instances
7. Social maturity and immaturity: definition and specific instances
8. Feelings of inferiority: origin, cause, and possible solution
9. Introversion and extroversion: personality types and analysis
10. The escape reaction and defense reaction
11. Specific ways of getting along with people and securing friends
12. Leadership
13. Habits for developing and keeping mental health (essentially of a summary nature)

EXPERIMENTAL SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND

Persons who have been following the trends of experimentation at the secondary-school level in this country will be interested in the following report on experimental schools in England, which appeared in the *Christian Science Monitor* and was prepared by Philip B. Ballard. The fact that coeducation is involved in the first group of experimental schools described may give rise to a smile by readers in a country so long committed to the education of boys and girls in the same school that coeducation is now a tradition. The second main group of experimental schools considered by the writer are those following the Dalton plan. It has been a matter of frequent comment that the Dalton plan has been more extensively followed in England than here, where the plan originated, and there has been much speculation to explain the reason for the difference. A theory of some plausibility has it that modification of the curriculum is easier with us; not finding change in the curriculum as feasible, the

English schoolmaster turns for relief to any workable modification of method.

There are in the British Isles, as in other countries, a small number of schools which are popularly known as "freak schools." They are as a rule private ventures, standing outside the national system and receiving no grant from the state. They claim to be doing pioneer work, laying down the lines upon which the education of the future will run.

There are certain features which are common to them all, but which receive different degrees of emphasis in different schools: they are coeducational; they provide for open-air recreation and instruction; they attach great importance to the arts and handicrafts as instruments of human culture; they grant as much liberty to the pupils as is compatible with life in a school community; they discard rewards and punishments as means of securing good conduct and sound learning; they encourage initiative, self-resource, and self-instruction by offering abundant facilities for individual and independent study.

Foremost among these pioneer schools is Bedales, which is of the "public school" type, and was founded in 1893 by Mr. J. H. Badley. It broke new ground in 1898 by following the lead of Mr. Cecil Grant's school at Keswick and including girls as well as boys. This was considered a daring departure from the English tradition of public school education. All the older public schools were boys' schools; and girls' schools were rapidly appearing under the auspices of the Girls' Public Day School Trust; but schools for both boys and girls were unheard of.

It is true that many of the elementary schools, indeed all the infant schools, were coeducational, though they were not called "coeducational," but "mixed." Among the grammar schools and high schools, however, coeducation was a new idea. And the fact that Bedales was coeducational was alone sufficient to bring it into public notice. It, however, broke with tradition in many other ways, for it abandoned many of the older methods of instruction and discipline, and gave its pupils much more freedom and self-government than was customary in other public schools. As an experimental school it has proved signally successful.

Other coeducational schools have since been established, some of them very large and prosperous. Notable among them is St. George's, Harpenden, which became popular under the leadership of its first headmaster, Mr. Cecil Grant. Other similar schools are King Alfred School in Hampstead, and Frensham Heights School in Surrey. These schools have now passed the experimental stage and are accepted as normal and regular. Bedales is no longer a freak school, nor is coeducation a fad.

Dalton schools were at one time considered "freak schools." In these schools class teaching is reduced to a minimum, and most of the time is devoted to private study. Each pupil is furnished with an assignment of work which has to be accomplished during a given time, and each classroom is equipped for a special subject and is regarded as a laboratory. So the Dalton plan is sometimes

known as the laboratory plan. The first Dalton school in England was the London County Secondary School, Streatham, the headmistress of which visited, just after the World War, Miss Helen Parkhurst's school at Dalton in the United States, came back a convert, and immediately Daltonized her school. So successful was the experiment that other schools, both private and state-aided, have copied in modified form the scheme at Streatham.

The schools which I have so far described are not entirely outside the main stream of British education. They adopt in some measure or other, authoritarian methods; they send in their pupils for certain public examinations, such as the school-certificate examination. And it may be mentioned, in passing, that the results compare favorably with those obtained at strictly orthodox schools. There are a few other schools, however, which are so "advanced" as to be almost out of sight. They are conducted on principles introduced by Mr. Homer Lane, who in 1913 founded at Batcombe in Dorset a colony on the model of the George Junior Republic, New York. It was called the Little Commonwealth and was regarded as an experiment in social and moral education designed to reclaim delinquent children and adolescents. It achieved a considerable measure of success; but, through an unfortunate series of events, came to a sudden end in 1918.

Homer Lane's principles and methods, however, are applied at Dartington Hall in Devonshire, a well-established boarding school, and at the school conducted by Mr. A. S. Neill. Mr. Neill may be regarded as the most intrepid experimenter in British education today. He is certainly the most articulate. He holds extreme views, has written a number of provocative books, and established a school at Dresden, which he transferred to Austria, and finally to Summerhill, Leiston, Suffolk. At Summerhill and at Dartington Hall we find the doctrine of individual freedom pushed to its logical conclusion. The pupils are free, not only to do right, but to do wrong. As they are not rewarded for right-doing, so are they not punished for wrong-doing. Virtue is its own reward and vice its own punishment.

The method may be described as heuristic. The term "heuristic" was applied by Professor Armstrong to a method of education which he strongly advocated. The heuristic method is the find-out-for-yourself method. He maintained that the pupil should learn physical science in precisely the same way as the human race learned it. He should make the discoveries for himself. The difficulty is that the human race took an unconscionably long time over the business—and school life is short. In fact the heuristic method of teaching natural science proved a failure from the first.

These most advanced of advanced schools attempt to apply the heuristic method to manners and morals. The boys and girls are allowed to evolve a moral code of their own by the method of trial and error. They are supposed to discover that evil contains the seeds of its own destruction, and that good alone brings ultimate satisfaction and happiness. These schools, especially Mr. Neill's,

seem to attract children who are difficult and fail to fit in with the ordinary school regime.

One further characteristic of advanced schools remains to be mentioned. They one and all discourage competition among their pupils, and do what they can to foster co-operation. No marks are given, and no class lists are exhibited. The only person the pupil is asked to compete with is himself. He is urged to beat his own record.

The characteristics of the advanced schools are to be found in some measure or other, in all the first-rate ordinary schools.

AN INSTANCE OF REALISTIC CIVIC EDUCATION

The schools of Riverside, Illinois, have afforded a significant instance of realistic civic-social education through a project which began as a study of gambling machines in classes in arithmetic in Grade VIII. We can hardly do better in justifying and describing the manner of working out the project than to quote in full the statement concerning it prepared by Superintendent L. J. Hauser for the *Chicago Principals' Club Reporter*. In the project as described we have incontestable proof that children as young as pupils of the lower secondary-school grades can share actively in determining the manner of living and in shaping the environment of the community. The project deserves a place of honor with rather similar projects that have previously been described in these pages, such as the study of garbage disposal by pupils of junior high school grades in Ashtabula, Ohio, and the making of a census by the pupils in a community and vocational civics class in the Township High School at Coal City, Illinois.

Children as well as adults are today constantly being exposed to the lure of various types of gambling schemes. These are rapidly increasing in number. One can hardly drop into the corner store or stop on the road while driving without running into slot machines, punchboards, and pinball games. And how appealing to the eye and imagination the manufacturers have made these devices!

The situation has reached such proportions that serious consideration must be given to an intelligent attack on the problem. The soundest protection of the individual against the gambling evil would seem to be found in an intelligent understanding of the truth. Children cannot be protected from the various gambling schemes so common today by merely allowing them to grow up in ignorance of the facts, in the hope that they will never come into contact with them. The truth of the matter is that they come into contact with them at an

early age and learn about them through very undesirable experiences. Various gambling schemes are used at American Legion carnivals and even church bazaars. As if the end justified the means!

In order to find out what proportion of our children had some experience with slot machines and punchboards, we checked the children in the eighth grade. We found that 93 pupils or 78 per cent of the class had played slot machines and 64 pupils or 52 per cent had played punchboards. With such proportions at the elementary-school level, what can we expect later on?

The experiences of children with such devices are usually very inadequate and misleading. The unfortunate thing about gambling is the fact that people tend to forget their losses but always remember their "winnings." The thrill of winning makes a strong impression on the individual, and it remains in his memory. Then too it inflates his "ego" to win, and he constantly reminds others of his "good judgment." The losses are not as clearly appreciated because usually no account is kept of the nickels or quarters squandered on the machines from time to time. The "winnings," however, always come in one larger payment and greatly impress the individual. Have you ever heard people tell about their great losses? But you have heard them tell about their "winnings." As a result the impression grows that certain people are always lucky. Individuals themselves develop the attitude that they are just naturally lucky and can get something for nothing. This impression is particularly effective with children.

The periodic raids of the police on various gambling devices has not proved to be an effective method of solving the problem. This procedure merely brings about a temporary improvement, but the situation soon returns to its former status. The problem cannot be solved by a small group of public officials vested with legal powers. A real lasting solution requires the co-operative efforts of the rank-and-file members of the community. As long as large groups of citizens will co-operate with the owners of the machines by playing them, it will be impossible to solve the problem. Those citizens who show no active interest in the solution of the problem, even though they themselves never gamble, are neglecting an important civic responsibility. The only really effective way to cope with this growing evil is to attack the problem at its roots. The place to begin is in the education of youth. The habits and attitudes of adults are pretty definitely fixed and difficult to change. It is, therefore, the responsibility of the school to attack the problem from a scientific as well as moral approach. An attitude that has been built upon a knowledge of the truth is one that really functions.

With this basic philosophy in mind, the study of gambling devices was made a definite unit of study in the arithmetic classes of the eighth grade at the Riverside public schools. The place to expose the different gambling machines is in the classroom under the supervision of the teacher. By placing a slot machine in the classroom, it was possible for the children to discover for themselves how small their chances of winning really are. No coins were used in this experiment, as the machine was adjusted in such a way that it would operate by merely

pulling the lever. One child would pull the lever twenty-five times while another child would keep a record on the blackboard. Then, two other children would follow this same procedure. In each case the total return for each group of twenty-five plays was far below the number of times the machine was played.

In a similar way, the study of punchboards made it possible for the youngsters to note through actual mathematical calculations how large the profits are and how small the chances of winning. The percentage of profit was figured on over one hundred punchboards advertised in many different commercial catalogues.

The children became so interested in this study that they made a voluntary survey of slot machines and punchboards in their own community. A study was also made of the local ordinances covering gambling devices. It was their opinion that the village ordinance covered the problem involved. The class decided to select a committee to present the results of their study to the village board, with a recommendation that the local ordinance be enforced. There was only one thing for the village board to do. They did it. The village manager was instructed to see to it that the twenty-two punchboards and three merchandising slot machines were immediately removed. With this large group of children interested in the elimination of such gambling devices in their community and additional groups of children coming up through the eighth grade each year, there is little opportunity for the return of these devices in the community.

As a result of this interesting project, it was possible for the children to receive real experience in practical citizenship as well as a better understanding of the small chances of winning by gambling. The schoolroom should not be an academic "vacuum," where "dead" problems are studied merely for the purpose of satisfying the teacher or getting a grade, but rather a place where children actually attack really vital problems co-operatively in the hope of reaching intelligent solutions. The best preparation for citizenship is the living of real lives as citizens, "here and now."

NEW OWNERSHIP AND POLICY FOR "EDUCATIONAL ABSTRACTS"

The following announcement concerning the quarterly, *Educational Abstracts*, has been received.

Educational Abstracts, formerly owned and edited by Norman J. Powell and associates of New York City, has recently become the property of Phi Delta Kappa, professional education fraternity. The first issue of the journal under the new management appeared in December under the editorship of Paul M. Cook and associate, W. A. Stumpf. With this issue the journal completed its second volume.

Several changes in policy will become effective with the first issue of Volume III. To the thirty-four classifications which have been in use will be added two new categories—"Agricultural Education" and "Methods of Teaching." Another classification is contemplated in which will appear abstracts of articles on

education published in lay magazines. Under this expanded classification the editors contemplate a thoroughly representative coverage of the significant publications in education, including books, articles, and bulletins. In addition, significant unpublished researches will be abstracted provided they are available for interlibrary circulation.

While *Educational Abstracts* now carries many abstracts of foreign publications, this area will be developed much more adequately than it has been. Eventually the publication, with the co-operation of educators in foreign countries, will be definitely international in scope. Obviously this international coverage may come to be a feature of more than usual importance to educators in this country who wish to keep abreast of the advances being made abroad.

Phi Delta Kappa is fully aware of the non-profit nature of this new undertaking and, as a matter of fact, expects to underwrite the project for several years if necessary. There seems to be a definite opportunity for service in the undertaking, and on that basis the association has accepted and is sponsoring the publication.

It is gratifying to note that the new plans for *Educational Abstracts* include the recognition of additional areas and some expansion of areas previously recognized. May these extensions be steps toward a comprehensive abstracting service in education, one which digests not merely representative items in a number of areas but instead all important writings in all areas.

Further information supplied by the new management indicates that the regular subscription rate of *Educational Abstracts* will continue at \$4.00 a year in the United States, with a rate of \$3.00 for members of Phi Delta Kappa. Persons whose subscriptions begin with the first number of Volume III may purchase all numbers in the first two volumes, while the reserve stocks last, at \$2.50 a volume, unbound. Subscriptions should be sent to *Educational Abstracts*, 1180 East Sixty-third Street, Chicago, Illinois.

A FORMER EDITOR PASSES

Rollo La Verne Lyman, well-known professor of the teaching of English at the University of Chicago, died suddenly of a heart attack while reading in bed late in the evening of December 22. Professor Lyman had been managing editor of the *School Review* from 1914 through 1916, during the earlier years of his instructional connection with the University. For several years following that period he was a member of an editorial committee in charge of this journal and

carried responsibility for articles and editorials. Although in his professional relationships he was chiefly distinguished for expertness in his special field of the teaching of English, Professor Lyman had an unusual appreciation of problems in the general field of education. This broader understanding is witnessed in his illuminating descriptions of outstanding junior high schools contributed as articles in the *School Review* during the decade from 1920 to 1930—at a time when thousands of school officers were seeking help in their work of reorganization. In recent years Professor Lyman's chief contributions to our pages have been his lists of selected references on English at the secondary-school level, one of which appears in this issue.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO LUNCHEON AT ATLANTIC CITY

A University of Chicago luncheon, instead of the dinner formerly given, will be held during the meeting of the American Association of School Administrators, at Chalfonte-Haddon Hall, Atlantic City, New Jersey, on Wednesday, March 2, 1938, at 12:15 P.M. Alumni, former students, and friends of the University are most cordially invited to attend. Tickets, at the rate of \$1.50 each, may be secured from Professor Robert C. Woellner, University of Chicago.

WHO'S WHO IN THIS ISSUE

MARY ETHEL COURTENAY, director of the socialization program at Lindblom High School, Chicago, Illinois. M. L. ALTSTETTER, educational specialist of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. PAUL R. PIERCE, principal of Wells High School, Chicago, Illinois. J. R. SHANNON, professor of education at Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana. R. L. LYMAN, formerly professor of the teaching of English at the University of Chicago (deceased since the preparation of this material). R. M. TRYON, professor of the teaching of the social sciences at the University of Chicago. EDITH P. PARKER, assistant professor of the teaching of geography at the University of Chicago. WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP, assistant professor of the teaching of science at the University of Chicago. ERNST R. BRESLICH, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago. FRANCIS F. POWERS, assistant professor of education at the University of Washington.

THE PERSISTENCE OF LEADERSHIP

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DOES LEADERSHIP PERSIST INTO POST-HIGH-SCHOOL YEARS?

Is leadership persistent? Do the evidences of leadership brought out in the stimulating situations of school life guarantee its continuance in the activities of later life? Does the class president, the newspaper editor, the executive chairman, or the cabinet officer of high-school days become the club president, the office manager, the social director, or the convention delegate of adult years?

An attempt to answer these questions led the writer in 1936-37 to examine the personal, occupational, and social status of a selected group of one hundred young women, graduates of the Lindblom High School between the years 1922 and 1934, in order to discover whether they continued to exhibit in adult years the leadership that they had manifested in their high-school careers.

The graduates who furnish the basis of this study had established their claim to leadership, not only by the record of their high-school achievements, but also by the special acclaim of their fellow-students and the testimony of faculty sponsors. By the vote of the entire Senior class and the approval of a faculty committee, they had been elected to the limited membership of the Senior Girls' Council, a group of eighteen girls largely responsible for the administration of girls' interests in a school with an enrolment ranging from approximately seventeen hundred pupils in 1922 to fifty-seven hundred in 1934.

Indeed it is a high calling to which these young leaders are elected. The discharge of the duties of the members of the Senior Girls' Council involves housekeeping and hospitality on a large scale. These girls raise, budget, and spend substantial sums of money. They plan and preside over large social functions. They instruct younger girls in the obligations of a hostess, the gracious service of the tea table, and the proper social forms of invitation and appreciation. They

have charge, in large part, of the ceremonies and the celebrations that convert the timid, eager pupils who enter the school in Grade IX into the confident and ambitious Seniors who are graduated. It is through their initiative that the cabinets of all the girls' clubs of the school are brought together for intercabinet conferences and thus unite their efforts in general school undertakings. The observance of Mother's Day, the administering of two stimulating all-girls' assemblies, and the conducting of regular candy sales and bake sales for the maintenance of the girls' restroom and the swelling of the student welfare fund are among their annual projects.

As a measure of the leadership of this selected group, both in high-school days and in later years, a study was also made of a control group of one hundred young women graduated by Lindblom High School during the same span of years. A study of the records revealed that the members of the control group had evinced interest and co-operation in the affairs of the school community but had held no administrative positions in pupils' organizations or activities, had made no distinctive contributions to school life, and had merited no special recognition from either the student body or the faculty.

THE PAIRING OF LEADERS AND NON-LEADERS ON A FOURFOLD BASIS

For the more reliable comparison of the activities of the two groups, both in their high-school and postschool careers, they were paired on the bases of socio-economic background, ethnic heritage, scholarship rating, and age at graduation. High-school records provided accurate data on the last three of these points. Information about home and family was secured through a questionnaire developed for the investigation.

The restrictions imposed by the highly exacting process of matching leaders and non-leaders necessitated the examination of approximately 700 school records and the mailing of 450 questionnaires. It is interesting to note that within three weeks 137 responses were made by the leaders to the 150 questionnaires mailed to them, while 153 replies out of a possible 300 were elicited from the non-leaders by dint of patient follow-up through letters, telephone messages, and personal appeals.

Socio-economic status was scored objectively by a statistical scale devised for the purpose. A median of 22.6 out of a possible score of 40 was found for the 100 pairs. The scores ranged from 10 to 39, representing homes in which the parents had never known any schooling to those in which both parents were college graduates. In most cases both parents had had elementary-school educations; the family library numbered not less than a hundred volumes; at least one daily paper printed in English and one or more current magazines entered the home. Concerts, lectures, and performances in the legitimate theater, however, were seldom part of the family's cultural diet.

Fifty-two per cent of the parents of the 200 subjects of the study are of foreign birth. Half of these come from Central and Southern Europe; approximately a third of them spring from the Scandinavian countries and the British Isles; and the remainder are Russian Jews.

In scholarship the range of difference was limited to four-tenths of a point on the basis of a perfect score of four points. The scholarship median for the leaders was 3.15; for the non-leaders, 3.07. The scant divergence of 0.08 of a point emphasizes the similarity in this aspect of the matching process.

The final basis of pairing was age at graduation, in which a maximum difference of four months was allowed. An extremely slight deviation was present in the medians for the two groups, 17 years and 7 4 months for the leaders; 17 years and 8 months for the non-leaders.

Data on the evidences of the leadership of these two groups in high school and after graduation from high school are given in Table 1.

COMPARISON OF THE PARTICIPATION OF THE TWO GROUPS IN HIGH-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

An inspection of the high-school records of the one hundred councilors clearly substantiates their claim to leadership. They occupied positions of trust and responsibility in club, council, and cabinet. Many of them had demonstrated their executive ability before their election to the council by holding major offices in class or club or by serving as chairmen of standing committees. A semester on the executive board of the Girls' Athletic Association, an organ-

ization of twenty-five hundred members, had given others fine developing experiences. The school publications, the weekly paper, and the high-school annual had claimed a number of these leaders on their literary and business staffs. Most of these girls had served dur-

TABLE 1
SCHOOL AND POST-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES OF 100 LEADERS AND
100 NON-LEADERS IN HIGH SCHOOL

Evidence of Leadership	Frequency for Leaders	Frequency for Non-leaders
In high school:		
Class office.....	36	2
Club office.....	97	1
Class chairmanship.....	72	39
Club chairmanship.....	123	1
Student-council membership.....	115	41
Citizenship award.....	292	8
Editorial position.....	59	
Total.....	794	92
Average.....	7.9	0.9
In college:		
Club membership.....	243	37
Class office.....	12	2
Club office.....	103	3
Special honors.....	39	2
Total.....	397	44
Average*.....	5.5	1.5
In community:		
Club position.....	199	50
Promotion of club work.....	119	23
Convention delegate.....	33	11
Public appearance.....	60	18
Social service.....	60	6
Total.....	471	108
Average.....	4.7	1.1

* For seventy-two leaders and twenty-nine non-leaders who continued their educations in college.

ing some semester as representatives to the student council of the school or as delegates to district conferences, special round-table discussions, or the All-City High School Girls' Conference.

In sharp contrast with the records of the leaders' group are those of the non-leaders. In nearly every case the sum total of their claim to distinction and their contribution to community life was limited

to membership in school organizations. Only two of them were found among the officers of a school class; only one was enrolled in the membership of the student council; and a small percentage had served on the cabinets of school clubs. Few were chosen to represent their groups on any special occasion or to lead a particular project. Some won individual honors in scholastic competition or in contests calling for skill in athletics, dramatics, music, and art. In co-operative enterprises, however, they showed no outstanding ability to organize or to execute and claimed little recognition of influence over their classmates.

COMPARISON OF THE TWO GROUPS IN POST-GRADUATION YEARS

Perhaps the most outstanding facts revealed in the examination of the post-high-school careers of the leaders and the non-leaders is the contrast in the numbers of the two groups who pursued their education in colleges and universities. With no advantage of cultural stimulus nor economic security, seventy-two leaders sought higher training, while only twenty-nine non-leaders showed similar ambition. Whatever the explanation of this striking difference in numbers may be, it is of undoubted significance that almost three times as many members of the leader group as of the control group continued their education. Of further importance is the fact, shown in Table 2, that, on the basis of the full membership of both groups, the average number of years of attendance for the leaders was more than twice that for the non-leaders and that more than twice as many leaders spent four years in higher institutions—the length of time usually required to earn the Bachelor's degree.

A survey of the activities of both groups in college presents a picture similar to that of their high-school years. Table 1 shows that participation of the leaders and the non-leaders in campus organizations and operations totals 397 evidences of leadership for the 72 leaders compared with 44 for the 29 non-leaders.

President of the Y.W.C.A., president of the women's council, president of the women's league, president of the women's athletic association, president of the self-government association, president of a federation of women's clubs, president of the Society for the Study of International Relations, representative on the board of

student directors, editor of the social page of the campus daily, member of the intercabinet council—these were some of the 103 club offices recorded by the leaders. Among the thirty-nine "special honors" listed were five elections to the honorary scholarship fraternity, Phi Beta Kappa; membership in the honorary Senior women's organization, Mortar Board; appointments to the post of "university aide" and the board of official "campus hostesses"; and winners of achievement trophies and medals for distinctive service and outstanding citizenship.

TABLE 2
HIGHER EDUCATION OF SEVENTY-TWO LEADERS
AND TWENTY-NINE NON-LEADERS

Number of Years in College	Number of Leaders	Number of Non-leaders
5.....	8	4
4.....	22	10
3.....	10	9
2.....	20	3
1.....	12	3
Total.....	72	29
Average number of years.....	2.92	3.31
Average number of years for 100 girls.....	2.10	0.96

COMPARISON OF THE OCCUPATIONAL STATUS AND
EARNING CAPACITY OF THE TWO GROUPS

Inasmuch as occupations, despite the fact that they do not always represent individual choice or capacity, nevertheless give some indication of interest and aptitude and inasmuch as the peak of income earned, with reasonable allowance for occasional injustice or misfortune, offers some measure of personal qualities essential to successful relations with others, an inquiry into the occupational status and the earning ability of the young women in the two groups should contribute something of worth to the present study. Each respondent to the questionnaire, therefore, was asked to state the positions which she had held at any time and the greatest net annual income which she had ever commanded.

In the range of fifteen occupations revealed by the replies, the majority of young workers in both groups were employed in office

work, clerical and secretarial, involving varying degrees of responsibility and paying a consequently graded schedule of salaries extending from \$500 to \$2,100 annually. Eight of the positions reported were designated as "office manager." Five of these managerial posts, including two which, both by description of duties and reported annual salaries of \$1,800 and \$2,100, respectively, seemed to reach the peak of promise and importance among the positions reported, were held by members of the leaders' group. Approximately twice as many of the leaders were engaged in professional work, largely teaching. Among the teachers almost three times as many leaders as non-leaders were employed in the secondary school, where they earned from \$1,400 to \$2,400 annually, seven receiving more than \$1,800. Among the non-leaders the salary span of high-school teachers was from \$1,050 to \$2,000, one young woman earning more than \$1,800.

The median amount of yearly earnings for 92 leaders was \$1,289.27, compared with \$1,015.27 for 88 non-leaders. Twenty of those in the leader group claimed earnings above \$1,700, while only two in the control group reported similar incomes.

COMPARISON OF PARTICIPATION OF THE TWO GROUPS IN COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES

The final test of persistence of leadership must be found in the extent to which the leaders of high-school days maintain their active interest in the affairs of the community and exert a definite influence over their fellows, as shown by the positions of importance and responsibility which they hold. The responses to the section of the questionnaire dealing with community service, which are summarized in Table 1, give evidence of the continued social and civic activities of the leader group. Thirty-three of them had served as delegates to local conferences and to district, state, and national conventions of professional, civic, and social organizations. The 199 club positions listed included officers and cabinet members of women's clubs and lodges; high-school and university alumni organizations; alumnae chapters of college sororities; church societies; parent-education groups; parent-teacher associations; and patriotic, civic, literary, music, and social societies.

Although the term "social service" seems a vague caption under

which to gather concrete facts, much of the information furnished in response to the question, "Have you engaged in any social-service work?" was specific. The help rendered included: "district captain on tag day for city charities," "general chairman of Junior-League benefit of American Legion," "teacher of a settlement class in home management," "organizer of church benefit for flood relief," "director of sewing club to provide layettes for the Kentucky Mountain Volunteer Nursing Unit." Under "Promotion of club work" were recorded the stimulation and the supervision of groups of children, youths, and adults. Here were enrolled Camp Fire guardians; Girl Scout captains; leaders of social clubs, dramatic circles, and discussion groups in schools and churches; and volunteer sponsors of mothers' clubs, choral groups, and handcraft classes in settlement houses and social centers.

The data presented in the non-leaders' column of Table 1 show that the convention delegates in the control group numbered one-third of those in the leader group and that one-tenth as many had engaged in some form of social service. As presidents of missionary societies and Epworth Leagues; secretaries and treasurers of church sodalities; officers in local sororities, alumni groups, and community clubs, the non-leaders had held club positions totaling a fourth of the number held by the leaders. Responsibility for the organization or the promotion of club work had been assumed about five times as often by leaders as by non-leaders.

PERSONAL APPRAISAL OF INDIVIDUAL CONTRIBUTIONS TO SOCIETY

Less objective measurements of value, but nevertheless indicative contributions to this study, are the representative answers made by individuals in both groups to the question, "What do you consider the most worth-while service you have rendered to society since you have left high school?" It is interesting to note that ninety-three of the leaders volunteered replies, while only twenty-six of the non-leaders responded to requests for this information. Some of the statements were sufficiently concrete and individual to give evidence of independent effort, of real insight into social situations, and of an altruistic outlook on the world. Certainly there is suggestion of initiative and resourcefulness behind such answers as the following.

Organizing and supervising a recreation club for children for whom no wise provision is made during the long-drawn-out summer vacation.

Organizing and teaching a parent-study group of foreign mothers that they may avoid some of the blunders which caused unhappiness in my own home.

Maintaining my financial independence and keeping my faith and courage through seven years of invalidism.

Surely she is more than just another teacher who believes, as do three of these girls:

Cultivating a regard for truth and a tolerant outlook in high-school pupils is more important than teaching the facts of history.

Developing an intelligent immunity to propaganda is patriotic service.

Helping youngsters to realize the social obligation of preserving their health is of first importance.

These are among the most interesting of the comments made by members of the leader group.

Of the twenty-six replies volunteered by those in the control group, three stand out as individual reactions in contrast with general statements common to both groups.

I am a failure. I have spent most of my time since I left high school trying to find steady work.

I am just plugging along; I have done nothing different.

I try to give joy to others through my music.

THE FUNCTION OF THE PERSONAL INTERVIEW IN THIS STUDY

The personal interview is not an exact method; it is an intuitive rather than an objective procedure. If, however, its primary purpose is conceived of as an attempt to reach a deeper understanding of the attitudes and activities of the individual and an interpretation of his point of view in the social and the personal situations to which he is responding, it becomes the only method available for securing the whole picture. The writer therefore turned the candid camera of the personal interview on five representative pairs of the subjects of the present study with the hope of securing illuminating close-ups to enrich the recorded data and statistical tabulations.

In each pair the two young women compared are of approximately the same intellectual capacity, the same racial antecedents, the same cultural heritage, the same economic background, and the same op-

portunities for growth and service. Yet each pair, whether from a relatively high level of cultural advantages or of illiterate foreign parentage and meager opportunities, presented a marked contrast in attitude and achievement. In family circle, in social group, and in church activities, in professional life and in community organizations, the leader continued to organize and direct. In no pair, on the other hand, did the non-leader evidence a positive influence over the social group of which she was a part or claim the recognition of her contemporaries.

AN ATTEMPT AT ANALYSIS

The findings of this study can by no means be regarded as final. The numbers employed are too limited, the time involved too short, and in some respects the nature of the material too subjective to establish authoritatively any conclusions drawn. Holzinger states: "All statistical quantities such as averages and measures of relationship are based upon samples. The results found from one sample will never quite agree with those found from another, nor with those from the whole population from which the samples were chosen."¹ The two sample groups designated in the present investigation as leaders and non-leaders do not, therefore, furnish a firm enough basis to justify far-reaching implications. Moreover, an attempt to determine the persistence of leadership involves an attempt to measure leadership; and, when all the available objective data have been assembled and all the refined devices of scientific measurement have been applied, the student is still confronted with unavoidably variable factors and with values which defy the statistical yardstick.

Nevertheless, on the basis of the information gathered in this study, the writer feels justified in concluding that the leadership evidenced in early years has a definite tendency to persist; that the qualities which made the members of the leader group outstanding figures in the high-school world continued to make them prominent on the college campus and active in the stimulation and the direction of community affairs. A gradual change is apparent, however, in the ratio of comparative participation measured by the records of

¹ Karl J. Holzinger, *Statistical Methods for Students in Education*, p. 231. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1928.

the control group. Table 1 shows that the averages of activity and distinction through major offices and special honors for the leaders and non-leaders in high-school stand in the relation of 7.9 to 0.9. A similar relationship for those in both groups who continued their study in institutions of higher education is expressed by averages of 5.5 and 1.5. In the community life of postschool years the leadership of the two groups assumed the ratio of 4.7 to 1.1.

Extended and refined investigation of the problem is necessary to substantiate any theories that might explain the slight but steady decline of leadership in the one group and the barely perceptible ascent of it in the other. Has the high school, under the pressure of growing numbers and growing problems, failed to develop adequate means for discovering the potentialities of leadership and effective means for cultivating them? Thorndike raises a pertinent question in this connection: "Is not special training in judging the qualities of leaders worthy of a place in democratic education?"¹ It is also possible that slowly maturing powers and gradual acquisition of control and confidence, physical as well as mental and emotional, destine some individuals to exhibit a constructive social influence in adult years which they did not exert in youth.

A few striking exceptions to the general trend were present in both groups. They were too slight, however, to disturb the conclusion which the findings of the study support, namely, that leadership is a persistent force, projecting its influence beyond school years and school experiences to the larger services and the more important activities of mature years, and that the school may well regard the potentialities of leadership worthy of serious consideration and thoughtful direction. In a day when the maladjusted child is receiving increasing attention, when remedial methods are being investigated and applied to meet the needs of the pupil who is mentally handicapped or poorly equipped, shall not the school consider that it has an equal obligation to the few capable of leadership to the end that every available facility for the development of this potential power should be preserved and utilized?

¹ Edward L. Thorndike, "Education for Initiative and Originality," *Teachers College Record*, XVII (November, 1916), 412.

EVALUATING THE EDUCATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE HEADS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS¹

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In the September issue of the *School Review* five scales for evaluating the education of secondary-school teachers were described, the basic data from which they were derived were presented, and the use or value of the scales to schools and school administrators was suggested.² In a similar way and from similar data, scales for evaluating the education of secondary-school administrators are here presented, followed by comparisons of the education of teachers with that of administrators. In both cases the scales are based on quantitative data; they do not take into consideration quality of education or quality of service rendered by the individual or the staff measured. In both cases, also, the scales apply only to secondary-school teachers and administrators, not to workers at other levels.

As stated in the previous article, every teacher and every administrative head of each of the two hundred secondary schools that collaborated with the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards³ during the school year 1936-37 was requested to fill out a form indicating the nature and the amount of education that he had received at the secondary, the undergraduate, and the graduate levels. Of this number, 155 administrative heads (presidents, principals, directors, supervising principals, headmasters, headmistresses, or persons with similar titles, hereafter referred to as "administrators")

¹ A report on one phase of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.

² M. L. Altstetter, "Scales for the Evaluation of the Training of Teachers," *School Review*, XLV (September, 1937), 529-39.

³ For information concerning the history and methods of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards and the choice of the representative two hundred schools on which the present article is based, see: (a) Walter C. Eells, "The Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards," *Educational Record*, XVII (April, 1936), 273-89; (b) E. D. Grizzell, "The Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XII (July, 1937), 34-44.

returned data sufficiently full and specific for use in the development of scales for measuring their education. Six scales were formulated, two for evaluating adequacy of education, two for comprehensiveness, and two for recency. Three scales, one for each of the three purposes, apply to education in the academic or subject-matter fields, and the other three scales, likewise one for each purpose, apply to education in professional or educational fields. "Adequacy" is defined as the total amount of formal education received beyond the secondary school; "comprehensiveness" is defined as variety or diversity of fields in which credits were received, both secondary-school and college credits being included; and "recency" is defined in terms of the date of last formal education. The exact definitions of the terms "adequacy," "comprehensiveness," and "recency" as applied to administrators vary somewhat from the definitions used for teachers in the previous article because the data could not be used in quite the same way in the two situations. The word "education" is here used in preference to the word "training" and means credits secured through classroom work. The word "preparation" is sometimes used in the same sense.

All scales provide for five ratings based, in general, on a normal probability distribution, although deviations from this ideal were necessitated by the nature of the data in a few cases. The highest rating, 5 ("very superior"), includes approximately the 10 per cent of cases rating highest; the next rating, 4 ("superior"), includes about 20 per cent; a rating of 3 ("average") includes approximately the middle 40 per cent; a rating of 2 ("inferior") includes about 20 per cent; and the lowest rating, 1 ("very inferior"), includes the remaining 10 per cent of cases. Each scale was derived by means of a tabulation and a summarization of the data appropriate for that scale, each of the 155 administrators whose records were adequate for the purpose intended being included.

Attention is called to the fact that the symbols used to designate ratings in this article are slightly different from those used in the scales for evaluating the education of classroom teachers previously published. By action of the Executive Committee of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, taken since the publica-

tion of the previous article, the *symbols* to be used by the Cooperative Study for the purpose of indicating ratings are to be 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 instead of 4, 3, 2, 1, 0, the definition of relative points on the scale remaining the same. The change was made in all phases of the Cooperative Study to avoid the unfortunate psychological implications, in many cases, of a zero rating. It may be well also to emphasize that these numerals when used in scales serve only as symbols, not as mathematical quantities.

ADEQUACY OF EDUCATION

The scales, constructed on the basis outlined above, for evaluation of adequacy of education of administrators are presented in

TABLE 1
SCALES FOR EVALUATING ADEQUACY OF EDUCATION
OF ADMINISTRATORS IN ACADEMIC AND
PROFESSIONAL FIELDS

RATING	NUMBER OF SEMESTER HOURS REQUIRED FOR RATING	
	Academic Fields	Professional Fields
1.....	0-96	0-14
2.....	97-110	15-27
3.....	111-128	28-51
4.....	129-147	52-66
5.....	148 or more	67 or more

Table 1. It will be noted that an average rating of 2 on the two scales means that the administrator has the equivalent of a baccalaureate degree (120 semester hours), and in many cases he has much more than that minimum. (Add the median in academic fields, 104 semester hours, and the median in professional fields, 21 semester hours, or a total of 125.) An average rating of 3 on both scales means, roughly, the equivalent of a Master's degree. An average rating of 5 on both scales signifies at least the equivalent of the required hours for the Doctor's degree. Usually an individual rates higher on one scale than on the other. For example, he may rate 1 on the academic scale and 5 on the professional scale and thus have

little more than the equivalent of a baccalaureate degree, even though his preparation in professional fields rates as "very superior."

In the academic fields the ratings of the scale for measuring adequacy of education of teachers, as given in the previous article, and those for administrators cannot well be compared because of the difference in use of the data on which the two scales are based. The scales for measuring education in the professional fields for the two groups, however, can readily be used for purposes of comparison. The scale for measuring adequacy of professional education of teachers is given in Table 2. In this scale the median number of semester hours for the group rating 3 is twenty-four; in the scale for administrators the median number of semester hours for the group rating 3

TABLE 2
SCALE FOR EVALUATING ADEQUACY OF
PROFESSIONAL TRAINING
OF TEACHERS

Rating	Number of Semester Hours Required for Rating
1.....	0-9
2.....	10-17
3.....	18-29
4.....	30-43
5.....	44 or more

is forty. If it is assumed that twenty-four and forty semester hours are the average amounts of professional education for teachers and administrators, respectively, it is evident that the former group has had only about three-fifths as much professional education as has the latter.

COMPREHENSIVENESS OF EDUCATION

Table 3 contains the basic data and Table 4 the final scale for the evaluation of comprehensiveness of education of administrators. In Table 3 it should be noted that credits for English and mathematics are measured in terms of semester hours while all other fields are measured in terms of number of subjects within the field. Two facts explain this difference: (1) The data forms did not call for subdivisions in English and mathematics, and therefore these two fields can be measured only in terms of semester hours or their equivalent.

TABLE 3

BASIC DATA FOR FORMULATING SCALE FOR EVALUATING COMPREHENSIVENESS
OF EDUCATION OF ADMINISTRATORS IN SUBJECT-MATTER FIELDS

SUBJECT- MATTER FIELD	AMOUNT OF CREDIT IN FIELD REQUIRED FOR QUANTITY CREDIT OF—				
	0	1	2	3	4
English	0-29 semester hours	30-34 semester hours	35-43 semester hours	44-52 semester hours	53 or more semester hours
Mathematics	0-17 semester hours	18-22 semester hours	23-32 semester hours	33-42 semester hours	43 or more semester hours
Foreign languages	Less than 1 full year in 1 language	1 language, 1 year or more	2 languages, 1 year or more in each	3 languages, 1 year or more in each	4 or more languages, 1 year or more in each
Sciences	1 science	2 sciences	3 sciences	4 sciences	5 or more sciences
Social studies	0-2 social studies, at least 3 semester hours each	3 social studies	4 social studies	5 social studies	6 or more social studies
Fine arts	None	1 field, at least 3 semester hours	2 fields	3 fields	4 or more fields
Practical arts	None	1 field, at least 3 semester hours	2 fields	3 fields	4 or more fields
Others (physical and health education, philosophy, general psychology, etc.)	None	1 field, at least 3 semester hours	2 fields	3 fields	4 or more fields
Variety credits	1 for each field in which one or more quantity credits is scored				

(2) Since the definition of comprehensiveness calls for variety or diversity of training, number of subdivisions within each general field best measures this factor.

The use of Tables 3 and 4 for measuring comprehensiveness of education in the academic fields may need some explanation. The data for each of the 155 administrators were tabulated, and from that tabulation the distribution and limits for each score group in Table 3 were determined for each subject division in the table. Suppose, then, a given administrator has credit for forty hours in English and twenty in mathematics and has had work in three foreign languages, one science, four social studies, no fine arts, two practical

TABLE 4
SCALE FOR EVALUATING COMPREHENSIVENESS
OF ADMINISTRATORS' EDUCATION
IN ACADEMIC FIELDS

Rating	Credits Scored (Quantity plus Variety)
1.....	0-16
2.....	17-19
3.....	20-22
4.....	23-24
5.....	25 or more

arts, and one "other" subject. Applying these data to Table 3 results in the following equation, in terms of quantity credits: $2 + 1 + 3 + 0 + 2 + 0 + 2 + 1 = 11$. For the purpose of giving further emphasis to diversity or variety, an additional credit point is allowed for each field in which a credit of 1 or more is given in Table 3—in this case, six. To 11 is then added 6, giving a total credit of 17. Reference to Table 4 indicates that 17 carries a rating of 2 on the scale. It must be emphasized that secondary-school as well as collegiate work is included in the data of Table 3 and in the scale in Table 4. A full year of credit in the secondary school (a Carnegie unit) is counted as the equivalent of six semester hours in college. No credit is allowed in foreign languages, sciences, social studies, fine arts, practical arts, or "others" unless credit for at least six semester hours or equivalent has been secured. For scores of 1 or more in Table 3 at least one-half unit or three semester hours in a

subject should be indicated before the subject is counted. The term "others" includes health and physical education, philosophy, general psychology, and such subjects as law, theology, engineering, and others that were written in.

On the form submitted to teachers and administrators were listed the following fourteen professional subjects: history of education, principles of education, school administration, supervision, educational psychology, methods of teaching, practice teaching, guidance, mental hygiene, educational measurements, pupil activities, curriculum-making, statistics, and library training. Space for writing in other subjects was provided. Determination of rating for comprehensiveness in the professional fields requires only counting the number of fields in which credit was received, making sure that subjects written in do not seriously overlap with any of the list given above for which credit was indicated, and then applying the total number to the scale as given in Table 5.

It has already been pointed out that administrators, on the whole, have had much more preparation in professional fields than have teachers. This difference is further emphasized by the fact that, while teachers, on the average, have credits in a fraction less than six professional fields, administrators, on the same basis, have credits in eight fields.

Other comparisons of the comprehensiveness of the education of teachers and administrators are worthy of note. In the subject-matter fields there is practically no difference between the two groups in the amount of preparation in English. In mathematics the average administrator is much better prepared than is the average teacher of subjects other than mathematics. None of the 155 administrators reported fewer than twelve semester hours of credit in this field, while 5 per cent of the teachers have less than seven hours of credit, and nearly half the administrators are above the seventieth percentile of teachers in the amount of credit in mathematics. In number of foreign languages studied, administrators are also somewhat better prepared than are the teachers of subjects other than foreign languages. In the sciences about 8 per cent of the teachers reported having no credit or credit in only one science, while none of the administrators reported credit in less than one

science and only 3 per cent of them are limited to one science. Similarly, somewhat less than 7 per cent of the teachers reported having had work in five or more sciences, while over 9 per cent of the administrators reported credit in that many.

Administrators may also be credited with being better prepared in the social studies than is the average teacher, number of subjects only being considered. In the fine arts administrators make their poorest showing, nearly half of them (seventy-five) having had no preparation in any subject in this field. Sixty-eight of the administrators have had no preparation in the practical arts, and forty-eight

TABLE 5
SCALE FOR EVALUATING COMPREHENSIVENESS
OF ADMINISTRATORS' EDUCATION
IN PROFESSIONAL FIELDS

Rating	Number of Professional Fields in Which Edu- cation Was Received
1.....	0-4
2.....	5-6
3.....	7-10
4.....	11-12
5.....	13 or more

more reported credit in only one. It is evident that the subjects introduced into the curriculum in more recent years are more largely outside the scope of preparation of the administrators than of the teachers. This fact will be referred to again.

RECENCY OF EDUCATION

A marked difference in the recency of the administrators' education in professional work as compared with education in subject matter is evident from the scale shown in Table 6. An examination of the data revealed that 48 per cent of the administrators have had preparation in professional fields in 1934, 1935, or 1936, while only 17 per cent of them have had preparation in academic fields during the same period. Similarly, only 14 per cent of them indicated 1927 or before as the latest date of education in professional work, as compared with 54 per cent who indicated the same or an earlier year as the date of latest education in academic fields.

A comparison of recency of education of administrators with that of teachers also revealed interesting differences. Forty per cent of the latter had their last professional preparation in or since 1934, and 36 per cent of them had their last subject-matter preparation during that time, as compared with 48 per cent and 17 per cent, respectively, for administrators. Twenty-six per cent of the teachers had their last preparation in subject matter during or before 1927, and 22 per cent of them had their last preparation in professional subjects

TABLE 6
SCALES FOR EVALUATING RECENCY OF EDUCATION
OF ADMINISTRATORS

Date of Last Work Taken	Number of Years in Interval	Rating
In academic fields:		
1912 or before.....		1
1913-22.....	10	2
1923-30.....	8	3
1931-34.....	4	4
1935-36.....	2	5
In professional fields:		
1925 or before.....		1
1926-29.....	4	2
1930-33.....	4	3
1934-35.....	2	4
1936-37.....	2	5

before or during 1927, the relative percentages for administrators being 54 and 14, respectively. The earlier education of administrators is probably explained by the greater age of administrators. Age also explains why administrators have comparatively little education in the more recently introduced subjects but, on the average, have had more education in the traditional fields.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Speaking in quantitative terms only, administrators of secondary schools are, on the whole, more adequately prepared than are teachers, particularly in mathematics, the sciences, and the professional fields. In the fine and practical arts, however, the former group is, by comparison, deficient. In the subject-matter field administrators

as a group received their preparation earlier than did the teachers, but in the professional fields they received it later. During the last eight or ten years administrators generally have taken professional rather than content work.

It will readily be conceded that the administrative head of a school should have more education than do the persons whom he is supposed to lead and supervise. How great should be this difference in education or what should be the nature thereof is quite another problem and is beyond the scope of this discussion. It is conceded also that 155 administrators is too small a sample to determine with finality scales such as those here discussed, but that is the total number available at this stage of the Cooperative Study. When more extensive results are available, as it is hoped there may be after the recommendations of the Cooperative Study have been in use for a few years, suitable modifications in detail may easily be made. Meanwhile, the scales in their present tentative form may serve a definite and worth-while purpose to school administrators when used as a means of comparing individuals or staffs as a whole with administrators or of comparing the preparation of one administrative officer with that of another. The Cooperative Study is using these scales, as well as others based on quantitative data, for purposes of evaluating and comparing schools, staffs, and, in some measure, individuals. In addition to such scales, subjective data are also being used.

REORGANIZING EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES—A HIGH-SCHOOL PROGRAM

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In spite of emphasis on pupil activities during recent years, relatively meager progress has been made in developing comprehensive programs in this significant area of secondary education. Programs of activities in high schools are generally characterized by marked variation in such aspects as proportion of numbers of activities to pupil enrolment, regulation of pupil participation, guidance of pupils in selecting activities, and degree of initiative assumed by sponsors.¹ Conditions of this nature have been ascribed to various factors, such as neglect of supervision on the part of principals or lack of teacher interest, but the chief cause has been failure to utilize basic educational principles in planning and developing programs of pupil activities.

Since February, 1935, principal, sponsors, and pupil leaders of Wells High School have been engaged in developing a program of activities particularly fitted to the interests and everyday living needs of the entire body of pupils. Difficulties have been encountered in the forms of a crowded building, extended school day, and financial straits in the homes. Entire absence of playing fields has been offset in a measure by the excellent play facilities of a modern plant. Also, the development of a core curriculum has provided abundant socializing experiences for pupils and an atmosphere out of which pupil activities should normally grow. The present article discusses the chief problems connected with a program of pupil activities and the experiences of the workers in Wells High School in

¹ William C. Reavis and George E. Van Dyke, *Nonathletic Extracurriculum Activities*, pp. 72-74. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 26. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932.

solving the difficulties in accordance with basic educational principles.

DEVELOPING BASIC PRINCIPLES

Instructors in professional schools and administrators in the field have alike failed to realize the extent to which pupil activities form an integral and essential part of the regular curriculum. The instructor in education treats the activities as "extra" by dealing with them as a specialized aspect of the school's work and advocating procedures for attaching them to the regular program; the principal, by putting them last among his organization measures. When pupil activities are accepted, both in theory and in practice, as a fundamental element of the curriculum, they will cease to be treated as specialized devices and will instead be based on principles as broad and significant as those controlling the program of studies. Out of the solution of problems in accordance with such principles will grow policies essential to comprehensive programs of activities in junior and senior high schools.

Recognition of this fundamental relation of pupil activities to the curriculum facilitated the selection of guiding principles for the Wells High School program. Instead of assuming that they were dealing with a highly specialized field having an attendant hierarchy of specialized principles, members of the group studying the problem turned first to the broad principles controlling the core curriculum. Some of these were utilized in their original form, and others were restated, the better to serve pupil-activity needs. Additional principles were required only to cover those elements in which pupil activities differ inherently and uniquely from other aspects of the curriculum. To be usable for teachers and pupils, the principles were stated in concise form and were limited in number. They were as follows: (1) The well-rounded development of pupil personalities should receive primary consideration. (2) Democracy of opportunity should be emphasized. (3) Pupil activities should be incorporated into the curriculum. (4) The activities should be related to future as well as current living. (5) Intrinsic values rather than tangible rewards should be emphasized. Subsequent discussion considers, in turn, the application of each of these principles in developing a comprehensive program of pupil activities.

PROVIDING FOR WELL-ROUNDED PUPIL DEVELOPMENT

Classification of activities.—The first step in organizing the activities was to classify them under three functional types: service, special-interest, and purely social. The service type of activity emphasizes a non-compensated, consistent, and frequently exacting civic service to the school. An example is furnished by the marshals, who direct corridor traffic, guide visitors to their destinations, protect pupil and school property, and conduct an office for marshal records, lost-and-found articles, and locker data. More than 540 boys and girls, each serving one forty-minute period daily, are members of this organization. Other groups in the service type of activity are library attendants, secretarial assistants, attendance office workers, civic-association officers, and lunchroom hostesses. The special-interest type of activity includes academic clubs, musical organizations, staffs of publications, and interscholastic athletics. The purely social activities consist mainly of class affairs, school social hours, and home-room parties. Membership in the school civic association and participation in intramural sports are regarded as essential elements, respectively, of social studies and physical education and are not included in the classification.

Provisions for pupil participation.—Classification paves the way for application of principles to the much-discussed problem of pupil participation. Each type of activity makes its unique contribution: service activities providing for the highest grade of citizenship practice, special-interest activities supplying leisure-time and avocational pursuits, and purely social activities furnishing training in social intercourse and recreation. The principle of well-rounded development of pupil personalities indicates that pupils should participate in all three types of experience. This policy has been practiced as a keystone in the Wells pupil-activity program. The question of limiting the individual's participation in each type of activity will be discussed in connection with the principle of democracy of opportunity.

Insuring integrated outcomes.—Unless the pupil activities are coordinated in purpose, with respect both to one another and to other aspects of the curriculum, the maximum values of the principle of well-rounded development will not be realized. To insure such co-

ordination is the responsibility of the principal. If sponsors and pupil leaders, for example, are stressing intrinsic values, the school publications should not be permitted to glorify tangible rewards. Again, if the importance of all types of activities is being emphasized, certain activities, such as interscholastic athletics, should not overshadow others in assembly programs, school newspaper, and home-room discussions. Each organization should also be guided to value highly its own sphere of activity and to refrain from taking over functions of other organizations. A special-interest club should not emphasize social activities, nor should athletic teams function as social or special-interest clubs. Having each organization adhere to the function for which it is established has been found to eliminate overlapping, prevent clique tendencies among pupils, and render the program balanced and purposeful.

REALIZING DEMOCRACY IN PUPIL ACTIVITIES

Democracy versus opportunism.—Should the pupils' participation in activities be limited? If so, to what extent? In attempts to solve these problems important factors have frequently been overlooked. The number of sponsors and the time that they can give to activities are limited. If opportunity is to be provided for all pupils in the main types of activities, the sponsor load must be kept at a minimum. At Wells High School the individual pupil enrolls during a given semester in one activity under each of the three main types. Participating in a service organization, a special-interest club, and his home-room and class social affairs, he might vitiate his own experiences in these activities, as well as impair the opportunities of members in other organizations, if allowed further participation. The especially capable pupil who seeks further recreational outlets is guided into challenging intellectual projects or wholesome community recreational pursuits.

No pupil may hold an important office in more than one organization during a semester, and a candidate must present a record of recognized service in the organization for two semesters immediately preceding the election. These requirements, while serving to spread the opportunities for pupil leadership, also challenge the candidate to prepare for the responsibilities of the office. Nominations for of-

fices indicate hearty pupil approval of such safeguards to the democratic way of conducting social enterprises.

Pupil initiative in selecting activities.—A procedure frequently advocated is that a pupil activity should not be organized until it is requested by a group of pupils. It is also advocated that pupils should "shop around" to discover what activities they want, much as people shop for bargains in goods. Principals and teachers should encourage such initiatory measures on the part of pupils but should not rely on them solely as means of developing an adequate program. Sponsors' special interests and abilities, pupils' out-of-school activities, and guidance growing out of class work are also factors influencing the selection and the initiation of activities.

The plan employed at Wells High School has been to provide an extensive framework of activities based chiefly on data of surveys of the pupils' interests and out-of-school activities. New activities are added as acceptable requests are received from pupil groups. In the core curriculum all pupils receive individual guidance in the selection of activities, but pupil freedom in making final choices is in no way inhibited.

Pupil responsibility in managing activities.—The role of Wells pupils in managing activities is a natural extension of their experiences in the social laboratory provided by the core curriculum. The civic association, through its central council and home-room units, takes complete charge of school assemblies and home-room sessions, thus affording all pupils training for planning and directing the activities of service, special-interest, and social organizations. The central council of the association acts not only as the representative body for pupil government but also as the clearing-house for all pupil activities. The council office issues a daily bulletin to all home rooms, announcing meetings of organizations and other news of pupil interest, sells tickets for paid activities through home-room representatives, and handles the funds for all shows and games.

An aspect of democracy which has particularly appealed to Wells pupils consists in making them colleagues of sponsors and principal, not only in carrying out the policies of the activity program, but also in considering the principles underlying it. Thus the pupils actually participate in solving problems of social import in accordance

with basic principles, perceive how interdependence affects relations between groups (between faculty and the pupil body, for example), and as individuals intelligently make adaptations necessitated by a complex and changing school world. The potentialities are strong that pupils regard partnership with faculty members in a large social enterprise at least as highly as they consider freedom to conduct necessarily limited undertakings of their own.

INCORPORATING PUPIL ACTIVITIES INTO THE CURRICULUM

Scheduling the meetings of organizations within the school day constitutes only a step in making pupil activities a part of the curriculum. The main consideration is not so much when the activities are scheduled as how they are related to the other curriculum activities and to what extent, in the estimation of the pupils, they provide unique and essential learning situations.

Incorporating pupil activities into other phases of the curriculum.— Each pupil at Wells High School has an individual curriculum, consisting of specialized subjects and pupil activities, which grows out of guidance in the core curriculum. Thus the pupil realizes from the outset that pupil activities are regarded as an essential part of the learning program. Another stage in relating the activities to other aspects of the curriculum consists in making them a part of the regular class work. For example, dramatics are conducted, not through a dramatics club, but through core-curriculum classes. In addition to utilizing classroom dramatizations as learning activities, each class presents auditorium programs based on significant aspects of learning units. The school newspaper is the responsibility of all English classes, a different class each semester assuming the work of setting up the paper for the press. Thus all pupils profit from evaluating and contributing news materials, critically studying local and metropolitan publications, and otherwise developing that discriminating use of newspapers essential to citizenship in a democracy. The civic association functions as an integral part of social-studies and home-room sessions; the music organizations, as part of the regular music program; and the main portion of intramural athletics, within the classes in physical education. All service activities form a part of the school's daily schedule. Home-room sessions and as-

semblies, conventionally regarded as pupil activities, are considered as much a part of the regular curriculum as the program of studies and are so scheduled.

Scheduling activity periods.—The extent to which pupil activities may be scheduled in "activity periods" during the regular school day is usually influenced by such factors as a crowded building, complexity of the program of studies, length of school day, and availability of play space and facilities. The nature of an activity at times causes both sponsor and pupils to prefer to meet after school hours. Whether the activities are scheduled during activity periods or after school hours, it is usually advantageous to schedule a certain type of activity for a given period or a given day. For example, various types of activities at Wells High School were assigned after-school periods during one semester as follows: interscholastic and intramural athletics on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays; special-interest clubs on Tuesdays; and social affairs on Thursdays. This arrangement made it possible for pupils to participate in each type of activity and prevented conflicts in the use of special rooms and equipment.

RELATING ACTIVITIES TO CURRENT AND FUTURE LIVING

Influencing current living.—Relating activities to the out-of-school recreational pursuits of the pupils, though rarely considered in either theory or practice, is indispensable if the activity program is to exert a marked influence beyond the school walls. As an integral part of the curriculum, pupil activities must develop practices—largely recreational—essential to effective everyday living. School activities alone, even when effort is made to extend them into the pupils' outside time, cannot adequately accomplish this objective. The pupil-activity program must be integrated with, and must definitely condition, the pupils' activities in home and community. This objective, in turn, requires the participation of parents and community recreational workers in the development of the activity program.

Initial steps in relating the Wells activity program to pupils' everyday living have consisted of (1) a diary survey covering all out-of-school activities of all pupils for seven days, (2) a survey of the recreational resources of the school community; (3) the issuance of a printed leaflet showing types, locations, and schedules of all whole-

some recreational agencies of the community; and (4) classification of pupil-survey data for use of sponsors, home-room teachers, teachers in various core-curriculum fields, and parents. Teachers in such core fields as the fine and the industrial arts, physical education, social studies, and English, particularly, utilize the diary-survey data for guidance purposes. Sponsors stimulate the engagement by pupils in wholesome recreations provided by the community and coordinate the school's activities with such recreations. Parents are informed regarding school and community recreational opportunities, and their assistance is enlisted in developing wholesome pupil activities for leisure time.

Public parks and playgrounds, settlement houses, public-library branches, youth organizations of churches, and local music and art societies are among the community organizations in which pupil participation has been fostered. Membership in community teams has been developed through co-operation with playground directors, and local parks have been utilized for school intramural softball games. Dramatics and literary activities have been provided by settlement and church organizations, and outing facilities through scout troops, social agencies, and youth organizations. A great advantage of membership in such community agencies is that they function in after-school, week-end, and vacation periods when the school's organizations are not available.

Activities for future living.—The potentialities of pupil activities for postschool recreational pursuits have rarely received the attention that they merit. The Wells program takes into consideration the probabilities that relatively few of the pupils can engage, after leaving school, in basketball or football but that great numbers can derive recreation from softball, swimming, and tennis. Few pupils are being prepared to participate in later life in highly developed choruses or dramatic productions, but many are learning to enjoy community singing, listen appreciatively to radio music and dramatizations, and intelligently follow motion-picture plays. Community surveys and pupil interests alike indicate that social dancing will be widely pursued; consequently all ninth-grade pupils are taught good form and taste in dancing and attendant social amenities through the classes in physical education. Certainly all pupils will find

abundant opportunity to continue, in future community living, the civic attitudes and practices which they are developing in the school service organizations.

INTRINSIC VALUES TO REPLACE TANGIBLE REWARDS

Pressure for tangible rewards.—Few problems connected with pupil activities cause so much difficulty, and yet possess such rich potentialities for developing character, as situations growing out of pupil quests for tangible rewards. Sponsors and pupils generally agree—in principle—that engaging in a worth-while activity should be its own reward, but in practice both are subjected to marked pressure to act otherwise. The pupils receive the brunt of the pressure—from members of their families, pupils of other high schools, alumni, local and metropolitan press—and pass it on to the sponsors. Often, too, a sponsor is convinced that tangible rewards are justified or that they are a necessary device for building up a successful team or musical organization. The principal must utilize a wealth of firmness and tact if the sponsor is to be supported adequately and pupils and parents are to be won over to intrinsic values as a practice as well as an ideal.

Developing improved practices respecting awards.—The chief means utilized at Wells High School to improve attitudes and practices respecting awards have consisted of (1) conferences of the principal with sponsors to study the implications of the principle of intrinsic values; (2) meetings with pupil leaders to insure their understanding of the principle and to enlist their support; (3) utilizing assembly programs, home-room sessions, and school publications for pupil discussion of the social and educational implications of the principle; (4) eliminating all external rewards not required by interscholastic regulations except membership in the school honor society. To qualify for the honor society, a pupil must have a record not only of outstanding accomplishment in one of the three main types of activity but also of acceptable performance in the other two types.

Conferences with pupil leaders and groups uncovered problems of particular concern to the pupil body. It was found that many pupils desired insignia in the form of letters and medals mainly because other groups, such as athletic teams, received them. Pressure for

such rewards decreased as pupil leaders and sponsors emphasized the principles of well-rounded development, democracy, and intrinsic values and as publications and assembly programs ceased to glorify letters and other external rewards. Critical comment from pupils of other high schools has been met by pupil-coined slogans expressing pride in the individuality of Wells in shunning tangible rewards. Pupils quickly recognized the distinction between emblems for rewards and those merely to show membership in an organization. Even membership emblems, however, have largely been abandoned in order that the money which they would cost might be used for other organization projects.

The question of credit toward graduation has not been considered by pupils or staff, but teachers have used records of pupil activities as one of the bases for ratings in civic traits.¹ Point systems have not been deemed consistent with other elements of the program, though each home-room civic unit records the participation of its members in pupil organizations. The significance of credit in any form largely disappears when pupil activities are extended beyond school hours and school walls into the everyday living of the pupils.

¹ The ratings were introduced by Dr. W. H. Johnson, superintendent of Chicago schools, in connection with a new report of pupil progress.

SCORES IN ENGLISH OF HIGH-SCHOOL ATHLETES AND NON-ATHLETES

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Comparisons of intelligence and scholastic achievement of high-school athletes and non-athletes have been made repeatedly. With few exceptions, however, these comparisons have had a common weakness: they are based on teachers' marks. Eaton and Shannon,¹ in a study that avoids this common error, open their report by saying:

Ever since athletics found a place in the high-school program, there have been debates with regard to the native intelligence and scholastic achievements of athletes and non-athletes. Most of the arguments have been based on unscientific observations and personal opinion. A number of more-or-less scientific studies have been made of the topic, but these have been insufficient to settle the problem. One of the principal weaknesses of these studies has been that achievement has been measured solely by teachers' marks. Although the conclusions of such studies have statistical support, the validity of the original data is questionable. Some teachers may have given certain athletes unearned marks in order that the boys might be eligible to play on the teams, and other teachers may have been unfair in the opposite direction because of prejudices against athletes.

The same writers say in their conclusions:

All previous studies of the comparative scholastic ability of high-school athletes and non-athletes have been based on high-school marks. There is still a need for a study based on standardized achievement tests.

In this day of the common use of tests, one might think that it would be easy to obtain standardized-test data bearing on the problem, but it is not easy. Few high schools give standardized tests in numbers large enough to be serviceable, and other agencies which administer tests have no records showing which boys are athletes. Thus far no investigator interested primarily in comparing athletes

¹ Dorothy Eaton and J. R. Shannon, "College Careers of High-School Athletes and Non-athletes," *School Review*, XLII (May, 1934), 356-61.

with non-athletes has cared to go to the expense and effort of using standardized tests widely.

Data for the present comparison were taken from records at Indiana State Teachers College. Since each Freshman entering the college is required to take an English test and a psychological test, the comparison could be made as soon as it was determined which men in the college had been high-school athletes and which had not.

TABLE 1
DECILE DISTRIBUTIONS OF SCORES ON PSYCHOLOGICAL AND
ENGLISH TESTS FOR 144 HIGH-SCHOOL ATHLETES
AND 211 NON-ATHLETES

DECILE	FREQUENCY OF PSYCHOLOGICAL TEST SCORES		FREQUENCY OF ENGLISH TEST SCORES	
	Athletes	Non-athletes	Athletes	Non-athletes
10.....	11	31	8	21
9.....	12	23	18	15
8.....	17	18	16	19
7.....	18	23	13	18
6.....	18	20	13	20
5.....	21	18	16	17
4.....	13	19	17	28
3.....	11	21	19	25
2.....	12	19	15	29
1.....	11	19	9	19
Median percentile....	52.1	54.8	47.5	42.7

In May, 1937, the names were determined of 144 men who, while in high school, had earned and received letters in interscholastic athletics and 211 men who had not. Securing this information was not easy, for the facts were sought from the students by their instructors, some of whom did not co-operate well in getting the names. Some students were reluctant to tell the truth because of the known prejudices of some of the professors.

Data of the type used in this study are more reliable than most data that might be obtained in high schools because the high schools represented are large in number and varied in type, all tests were

given under uniform conditions, and all the men were at the same stage of scholastic progress at the time of taking the tests.

The psychological tests used were the Psychological Examination of the American Council on Education and the Teachers College Psychological Examination. The Barrett-Ryan English Test and the Iowa Placement Tests were used in testing English. The deciles for the psychological tests were computed locally, but those for the English tests are the publishers', the local figures being found to be so nearly the same as the publishers' that further computation was discontinued.

All essential data of this report are given in Table 1, which shows the decile distributions of the scores on the psychological and the English tests for athletes and non-athletes and the median for each distribution. The difference between the median percentiles on the English test is large enough to be significant. This difference still further emphasizes the tendency reported in 1934 by Eaton and Shannon for athletes to make higher achievement records in proportion to their intelligence than non-athletes. In the 1934 report the athletes were behind the non-athletes in both intelligence and college scholarship but not so far behind in scholarship. In the present report the athletes are slightly behind (perhaps not significantly) in intelligence but noticeably ahead in achievement in English.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY- SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

II. THE SUBJECT FIELDS

LEONARD V. KOOS AND COLLABORATORS

The same grouping of subject fields is being followed for the lists of references in the February and March numbers of the *School Review* as was used in the cycles of lists published during 1933-37, inclusive. The concept of "instruction" is likewise the same, including curriculum, methods of teaching and study and supervision, and measurement. In each subject field the list includes items published during a period of approximately twelve months since the preparation of the list published last year.

ENGLISH¹

R. L. LYMAN

65. ANDERS, LENORE LEAR. "Remedial Effects of a Free Reading Program," *English Journal*, XXV (December, 1936), 851-56.

Reports an experiment in ninth-grade English classes showing that pupils read more and gain more in comprehension when they are permitted a choice in the books read.

66. ARCHER, JEROME W. "Guiding Extensive Reading in the Senior High School," *English Journal*, XXV (November, 1936), 744-52.

Suggestions, based on experience and observation, on methods of providing an adequate reading program for high-school pupils.

67. BAGLEY, DOROTHY. "A Critical Survey of Objective Estimates in the Teaching of English," *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, VII (February and June, 1937), 57-71, 138-55.

Discusses three types of investigations: (1) the "observation" or "scientific report" type, (2) the "classification" study, and (3) objective experiment. Reports some studies dealing with the power of expression.

68. BARNES, WALTER. "American Youth and Their Language," *English Journal*, XXVI (April, 1937), 283-90.

¹ See also Items 388 and 429 in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1937, number of the *Elementary School Journal* and Item 511 (Steadman) in the October, 1937, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

Discusses language as a mode of social conduct and a good language program as one which grows out of the essential nature and distinctive qualities of youth.

69. BARRY, LINDA, and PRATT, MARJORIE. "A Remedial-Reading Program in a Public High School," *School Review*, XLV (January, 1937), 17-27.
Describes the organization of classes in remedial reading at the Shorewood Junior-Senior High School, gives statistical results as determined by reading tests, and points out weaknesses and strength of the program.
70. BAXTER, FREDERIC B. "Adventures in Newspaper Reading," *English Journal*, XXVI (January, 1937), 42-47.
Describes a series of ten lessons designed to train high-school pupils how to read a newspaper.
71. BLOCK, VIRGINIA LEE. "Can We Vitalize English?" *English Journal*, XXV (October, 1936), 638-52.
Reports the results of a controlled experiment with two methods of teaching literature. Pupils in the experimental group assisted in selecting problems and in planning methods of attack; in the control group the teacher assigned problems and directed the procedure. The writer claims superiority for the experimental method.
72. CARNEY, ELIZABETH. "An Effective Newspaper and Magazine Unit," *English Journal*, XXV (November, 1936), 752-56.
Suggests a plan for assisting high-school pupils to develop judgment with regard to the reading of newspapers and magazines.
73. CENTER, STELLA S., and PERSONS, GLADYS L. "The Leisure Reading of New York City High-School Students," *English Journal*, XXV (November, 1936), 717-26.
Reports a survey of the leisure reading of thousands of boys and girls in high schools of New York City. Shows that: (1) 69.5 per cent of the books read were works of fiction; (2) the overwhelming interest in newspaper-reading was for comic sections, sports, and the front page; (3) tabloids held their own, 70 per cent of the pupils of Theodore Roosevelt High School preferring them to a daily paper; (4) the strongest interests in magazine-reading were sports, motion pictures, popular science, mystery stories, detective stories, and "true stories."
74. CHAMBERLAIN, ESSIE. "Material for the High School Literary Magazine from the Class in Creative Writing," *Education*, LVII (September, 1936), 44-50.
Summarizes some of the best literature on the subject of creative writing and presents examples of co-operation between the high-school class in creative writing and school publications.
75. CROMWELL, OTELIA. "Preparation for Freshman Composition," *English Journal*, XXV (September, 1936), 551-56.

Discusses an attempt to improve the method of selecting college Freshmen and to devise a program adapted to the individual needs of entering students.

76. CUNNINGHAM, HELEN. "A Book-List for a Retarded Ninth-Grade Class," *English Journal*, XXV (October, 1936), 659-67.

Lists 226 books which have proved useful in stimulating reading in a ninth-grade section in remedial English.

77. DILLA, GERALDINE P. "The College Study of English Art: The Synthesizing Foundation for English Literature," *Education*, LVII (December, 1936), 197-204.

Presents the thesis that students can more easily understand the spirit of a people by studying their art than by studying their literature. Hence studying the art of a people furnishes a proper background for the study of their literature.

78. FOGLER, SIGMUND. "Correcting Composition," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XVIII (September, 1936), 37-42.

Reports data from a limited experiment showing progress in written composition when attention is centered on individual needs.

79. GOLDMAN, LOUIS. "Educational Possibilities of a School Paper," *English Journal*, XXVI (February, 1937), 127-30.

Describes a program for making the work of producing a school paper a vital part of the high-school English curriculum.

80. JOHNSON, LOAZ W. "The Effect of Integration on Achievement," *English Journal*, XXV (November, 1936), 737-44.

Reports experiments in high-school English showing: (1) that it is possible so to organize English work in high school as to enable teachers to check on language usage of pupils, (2) that mechanical aspects of paper work may be reduced to routine, (3) that English work may be intrinsically motivated, (4) that work in all school subjects may be materially improved through direct and properly organized co-operation of the English teacher with the other teachers, and (5) that English lends itself effectively to an integrated high-school program.

81. KANGLEY, LUCY. "An Approach to Poetry Appreciation," *English Journal*, XXVI (March, 1937), 217-24.

Discusses a program of poetry-teaching under two main aspects: the selection of poems and the techniques for presenting them.

82. LEONARD, PAULINE. "Creative Writing and the Library," *Education*, LVII (September, 1936), 40-43.

Discusses helps that the library can offer pupils in courses in creative writing.

83. MCCARTY, E. CLAYTON. "38 Pupils in This English Course Achieved Publication," *Clearing House*, XI (October, 1936), 95-101.

Tells how junior high school pupils were piloted to successful competition with adult writers in the field of magazine writing.

84. MCCULLOUGH, CONSTANCE. "Improving Reading Comprehension in Grade IX," *School Review*, XLV (April, 1937), 266-73.
Reports definite gains in reading achievement through a special course designed for inefficient readers.
85. MACLEOD, MALCOLM. "The 'Thinking' Examination for Advanced Composition," *English Journal* (College Edition), XXVI (March, 1937), 215-18.
Presents a set of questions for a "thinking" examination in advanced composition for college students.
86. MILLER, WARD S. "Journalistic Projects in the English Curriculum," *Education*, LVII (December, 1936), 236-39.
Discusses the interest and value of interviewing, local-opinion surveys, and broadcasting in improving oral and written work of high-school pupils.
87. MILLER, WARD S. "Interviewing for English Classes," *English Journal*, XXVI (January, 1937), 18-22.
Discusses the values of projects in interviewing for English classes and presents techniques for holding interviews and writing reports.
88. OLIVER, EGBERT S. "Can Creative Writing Be Taught?" *English Journal* (College Edition), XXVI (January, 1937), 39-47.
Some comments by prominent authors, such as Jonathan Norton Leonard, Manuel Komroff, Sidney Howard, T. S. Stripling, Willa Cather, Thornton Wilder, James Boyd, Hervey Allen, Zona Gale, and Stephen Vincent Benét.
89. REDFORD, EDWARD H. "A Survey of College and University Theses Which Discuss High School Journalism and Publications," *Education*, LVII (December, 1936), 239-43.
Lists theses and abstracts from theses concerning high-school journalism and publications.
90. ROBERTS, HOLLAND D., and FOX, HELEN. "Streamlining the Forum and Debate," *English Journal*, XXVI (April, 1937), 275-82.
The panel discussion as a technique important in a democracy is discussed under the headings: "The Panel Liberalizes the Speech Program," "On the Platform," "Opening the Panel," "Steering the Course," and "Enter Audience."
91. SMITH, DORA V. "American Youth and English," *English Journal*, XXVI (February, 1937), 99-113.
Urges the building of a meaningful program in English by keeping our eyes on American youth.
92. STALNAKER, JOHN M. "Question VI—The Essay," *English Journal* (College Edition), XXVI (February, 1937), 133-40.

Presents a report prepared for the English examiners of the College Entrance Examination Board. Offers suggestions on how the reliability of reading the essay question can be improved.

93. STECHER, CONSTANCE F. "Socializing the English Period," *Education*, LVII (December, 1936), 229-32.
Discusses the advantages offered by socialized procedure in high-school English classes.
94. WAGNER, MAZIE EARLE, and STRABEL, EUNICE. "Predicting Performance in College English," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXX (May, 1937), 694-99.
Reports a study to determine what measures available at college entrance best predict subsequent performance in English.
95. WALLEY, HAROLD R. "A Planned English Curriculum," *English Journal* (College Edition), XXV (October, 1936), 663-70.
Reports the principal features of the Ohio State University curriculum in English, which was constructed according to definite educational principles in an attempt to adapt the program to needs of pupils in a modern world.
96. WEEKS, RUTH MARY. "Content for Composition," *English Journal*, XXVI (April, 1937), 294-301.
Discusses the need for curriculum change along with the change in the general philosophy of the outer world and with the growth and shifting interests of the pupils.

THE SOCIAL SCIENCES¹

R. M. TRYON

Inasmuch as the three journals *Social Education*, *Social Studies*, and *Southern California Social Studies Review* are entirely devoted to the field covered in this section of the list of references on curriculum, methods, and supervision, the material in them has been omitted on the assumption that it is fairly well known by those interested in the social sciences as school subjects.

97. ANDERSON, HOWARD R. "Examinations in the Social Studies," *The Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations*, pp. 163-213. Prepared under the auspices of a Committee of the American Council on Education. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1937. Pp. viii+498.
A helpful discussion of general achievement testing, the use of the essay-type question, and testing of work skills and attitudes. Contains many useful suggestions for the novice in test-making in the social sciences.

¹ See also Items 523 (Bagley and Alexander), 534 (Horn), and 539 (Wesley) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1937, number of the *Elementary School Journal* and Item 33 (Rice, Conrad, and Fleming) in the January, 1938, number of the *School Review*.

98. ARGO, A. C. "Social Living Course at Sequoia Union High School," *Curriculum Journal*, VIII (March, 1937), 111-14.
An account of the set-up and experience with a required two-year, two-hour-a-day course in Grades IX and X that purports to fuse English and world-history and to correlate materials from the fine arts and science with these subjects.
99. BARHAM, THOMAS C., JR. "A Social-Studies Unit That Developed Pupils' Powers of Problem Solving," *Clearing House*, XII (September, 1937), 33-36.
A presentation of the material and the method used for the purpose of developing the problem-solving powers of pupils in the secondary school.
100. BELLOT, H. HALE. "The Place of American History in English Education," *History* (New Series), XXI (March, 1937), 331-39.
A justification for the study in the schools of England of American history on the basis of its being a part of the Atlantic system of which the European system is a member.
101. BREINAN, ALEXANDER. "Why Our Pupils Come to Our Social Science Classes Unprepared Even after Reading Their Assignment Conscientiously—And What the Social Science Teacher Can Do about It," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XIX (March, 1937), 79-80.
Offers a subjective opinion, based on the author's own use, of a method of teaching which results in better pupil preparation.
102. BROOKS, HELEN RHODA. "Student Preferences in Problems of Democracy," *Harvard Educational Review*, VII (March, 1937), 215-23.
A report on the problems selected on the basis of interest by ninth-grade and twelfth-grade pupils and by adults from a list presented to them.
103. CARMICHAEL, O. C. "Social Science in the Liberal Arts College," *Social Science*, XII (April, 1937), 163-67.
Calls attention to the inadequacy of the present-day program in the social sciences in the liberal-arts college and suggests ways in which this program might be strengthened.
104. *The Contribution of Research to the Teaching of the Social Studies*. Eighth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Cambridge, Massachusetts: National Council for the Social Studies (Office of the Secretary, 18 Lawrence Hall, Harvard University), 1937. Pp. vi+240.
A review and a critical evaluation of the contributions of research to objectives, methods, directed study, the reading program, teaching current events, and testing in the social sciences.
105. CUMMINGS, CHARLES K., JR. "Human Relations," *Progressive Education*, XIV (November, 1937), 546-57.

A comprehensive discussion of an experimental course in human relations which was conducted in the Cambridge School, Kendal Green, Massachusetts. Content, objectives, and evaluation are emphasized.

106. DAY, L. C. "Local Opportunity and Knowledge of Current Events," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVIII (September, 1937), 44-51.
The results of a test in current events administered to nearly five thousand pupils in Grades VI-XII, inclusive, in seven more or less widely separated school systems of varying sizes.
107. DOUGLASS, HARL R., and FRIEDMAN, KOPPLE C. "The Relation of Certain Factors to Achievement in College Social Studies and History," *School Review*, XLV (March, 1937), 196-99.
The results of an investigation to determine the relation between high-school history or social studies and college success in these fields.
108. *Education against Propaganda*. Seventh Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Cambridge, Massachusetts: National Council for the Social Studies (Office of the Secretary, 18 Lawrence Hall, Harvard University), 1937. Pp. vi+182.
An illuminating treatment by a number of specialists of how to develop skill in the use of the sources of information about public affairs.
109. EMERY, JULIA. "The Background of Current Affairs in September," *School Review*, XLIV (December, 1936), 764-68.
Results obtained from the administration of an information test on current affairs to seven thousand high-school pupils.
110. ENYEART, BUEL F., and LEE, J. MURRAY. "The Burbank, Calif., Schools' 12-Year Sequence for Social Understanding," *Clearing House*, XI (May, 1937), 542-46.
An exposition of the vertical and the horizontal axes of the recently developed course of study for the schools of Burbank.
111. JEFFREYS, M. V. C. "The Teaching of History by Means of 'Lines of Development,'" *History (New Series)*, XXI (December, 1936), 230-38.
A summary of the reports from twelve schools, in which experiments involving the "line" method of approach are under way.
112. KING, A. K. "Is World History as Successful as We Thought It Would Be?" *High School Journal*, XX (May, 1937), 182-87, 197.
An analysis and exposition of the reasons why the one-year course in world-history in the high school has not succeeded to the extent that its early proponents thought it would.
113. KNOWLTON, DANIEL C. "Vital Issues in the Social Studies," *Curriculum Journal*, VIII (November, 1937), 299-304.
An exposition of the present chaos in curriculum-making in the social sciences and a plea for a rigid application of the historical method of approach to the problem.

114. KRONENBERG, HENRY; TRYON, ROLLA M.; and NUTTER, HAZEN E. *Pamphlets on Public Affairs for Use in Social-Studies Classes*. Bulletin Number 8 of the National Council for the Social Studies. Cambridge, Massachusetts: National Council for the Social Studies (Office of the Secretary, 18 Lawrence Hall, Harvard University), 1937. Pp. 80.
An annotated list of 483 pamphlets, selected from an enormous mass of available publications of this type, on the bases of low cost, availability, usefulness for classes in the social sciences, and freedom from pronounced bias.
115. MILLIKEN, E. K. "The Teaching of History by Means of Models," *History* (New Series), XXII (September, 1937), 139-48.
An account of how courses in world-history and English history were made concrete and real by means of individual and collective handwork, dioramas or tableaux, and demonstration models.
116. PUGH, JESSE J. "The Bias of Our Civics Textbooks," *Clearing House*, XII (September, 1937), 15-18.
Based on a comprehensive study of textbooks in civics. According to the author's findings, some civics textbooks are biased in favor of the *status quo*, some in favor of radicalism, and some in favor of conservatism.
117. SCHUCKER, LOUIS A. "The History Club and Objectives in the Social Studies," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XIX (October, 1937), 11-17.
Contains a sample history-club program for two semesters and ten suggestions of practical value to directors of history clubs.
118. SMITH, DONNAL V. *Social Learning for Youth in the Secondary School*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937. Pp. x+292.
A presentation of an experimental procedure for teachers of the social sciences, based on the author's experience in the Milne High School, the experimental school of New York State College for Teachers, Albany, New York.
119. SOROKOFF, HYMAN. "Changing Objectives in the Teaching of History," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XIX (April, 1937), 34-42.
A review and summary of the objectives in the teaching of history prior to 1860 and a presentation of the five units of a course in American history, along with the skills and attitudes to be developed in connection with each unit.
120. TOWNSEND, MARY E., and STEWART, ALICE G. *Audio-visual Aids for Teachers*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1937. Pp. 132.
Volume II of the "Social Science Service Series," the first volume being *Guides to Study Materials for Teachers*. Contains much helpful material on atlases, maps, pictures, radio, and museums.
121. WINSLOW, G. H. "Original Historical Plays as a Method of Teaching College History," *Educational Method*, XVII (October, 1937), 28-33.

An account of the construction and the presentation of an original historical play as the main feature of a class-day program in the State Teachers College at Worcester, Massachusetts.

GEOGRAPHY

EDITH P. PARKER

122. BECKER, HENRY F., and FAWLEY, GLADYS. "Some Exercises in Geography Study Techniques for College Freshmen," *Journal of Geography*, XXXV (November, 1936) 317-26.
Cites specific exercises designed to develop in the student the ability to secure geographic data independently.
123. BIRCH, T. W. "Recognition of Climate Types," *Journal of Geography*, XXXVI (January, 1937), 34-37.
Emphasizes the value of interpreting climate statistics.
124. BROWN, RALPH H. "Testing in Geography at College Level," *Journal of Geography*, XXXVI (April, 1937), 140-48.
Illustrates types of objective tests.
125. CHAMBERS, WILLIAM T. "Cotton—the Leading Textile Crop," *Business Education World*, XVII (February, 1937), 417-20.
Describes a method of teaching the topic of cotton as a world-commodity.
126. EKBLAW, SIDNEY E. "The Geography of the Grasslands," *Business Education World*, XVII (April, 1937), 561-64.
Describes a unit designed to acquaint high-school pupils with the proper utilization of the grasslands of the world.
127. MILLER, GEORGE J. "Geography in the Senior High School," *Business Education World*, XVII (May, 1937), 664-67.
Describes present status of geography in the high schools and suggests additional courses.
128. PRESTON, RICHARD J. "Conservation of Natural Resources," *Business Education World*, XVII (June, 1937), 745-47.
Outlines the study of five phases of the subject of conservation of natural resources.
129. PRIMMER, GEORGE H. "Acreage of Eight World Crops," *Business Education World*, XVIII (October, 1937), 101-4.
Depicts a scheme of representing graphically the areas devoted to eight important world-crops and suggests problems arising from them.
130. RAU, JOHN W. "Economic Geography Summary Charts," *Business Education World*, XVIII (September, 1937), 19-20.
Illustrates guide sheets to be used in studying any agricultural product, any natural resource, or any foreign country.

131. RIGGS, MARGARET. "Making an Exercise in High School Geography Serve Three Purposes," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXVII (January, 1937), 87-92.
Describes an exercise used in the summary unit on weather and climate.
132. WEAVER, WILLIAM R. "A Teaching Plan for Wheat," *Business Education World*, XVII (December, 1936), 253-55.
Describes a plan for giving instruction on the topic of wheat as a world-product.
133. WHITAKER, J. R. "The Study of Cities as a Concluding Unit in Economic Geography," *Journal of Geography*, XXXVI (February, 1937), 50-54.
Suggests a unit on cities as a stimulating device for review.
134. WHITBECK, R. H. "Geography in the Senior High School," *International Understanding through the Public-School Curriculum*, pp. 135-41. Thirty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1937.
Cites specific illustrations of how geography-teaching can promote understanding and good will between nations.
135. YORK, G. M. "Guidance Opportunities in the Economic Geography Class," *Guidance in Business Education*, pp. 237-41. Ninth Yearbook of the Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association. Philadelphia: Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association (1200 Walnut Street), 1936.
Cites ways in which the teacher of geography may interest pupils in educational, vocational, and avocational fields.

SCIENCE

WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP

136. ANDERSON, KENNETH E. "Toward a Changing Curriculum in Science," *School Review*, XLV (January, 1937), 53-59.
Presents an analysis of the science content of popular magazines and their contributions to the various fields of science.
137. BAIRD, HAL. "A Functional Course in the Physical Sciences," *Curriculum Journal*, VIII (January, 1937), 13-16.
Presents a series of units of a fused course in physics and chemistry and suggestions for teaching procedures.
138. CALDWELL, OTIS W. "The Next Ten Years in Science Education," *Science Education*, XXI (April, 1937), 61-64.
Describes the tendencies which appear fairly certain to produce changes in science education.
139. CROWELL, VICTOR L., JR. "The Scientific Method: Attitudes and Skills Essential to the Scientific Method, and Their Treatment in General Sci-

ence and Elementary Biology Textbooks," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXVII (May, 1937), 525-31.

Presents a list of attitudes and skills rated important by sixty-four judges.

140. DAVIS, JAMES P. "Some Methods for the Improvement of Instruction in Physics," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXVII (November, 1937), 925-32.

Analyzes types of difficulties and suggests measures for their correction.

141. DUEL, HENRY W. "Measurable Outcomes of Laboratory Work in Science," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXVII (October, 1937), 795-810.

Reviews the experimental investigations and draws conclusions on the basis of the evidence now available.

142. FITZPATRICK, F. L. "Pupil Testimony concerning Their Science Interests," *Teachers College Record*, XXXVIII (February, 1937), 381-88.

Presents the results of an investigation of the consistency of pupil testimony concerning their science interests.

143. HALL, W. J. "A Study of Three Methods of Teaching Science with Classroom Films," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXVI (December, 1936), 968-73.

Presents the result of an investigation to determine the relative value of three methods of using classroom films.

144. HARTMANN, GEORGE W., and STEPHENS, DEAN T. "The Optimal Teaching Sequence for Elementary Physical Principles Based on a Composite Scale of Pleasure-Value and Difficulty of Insight," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXVIII (September, 1937), 414-36.

Presents the results of an investigation to determine the order of teaching physical principles.

145. HASKINS, RICHARD; GAVIN, JOHN; and BOWMAN, E. C. "An Experiment in the Teaching of High School Chemistry," *Journal of Chemical Education*, XIV (July, 1937), 321-23.

Describes a teaching procedure beginning with the practical aspects of chemistry and then going on to more abstract textbook materials.

146. HOFF, ARTHUR G. "A Functional Lesson Plan for Science Teaching," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXVII (April, 1937), 437-48.

Describes in detail the construction of a guide sheet for pupils of general-science classes.

147. PETERSON, SHAILER A. "Advocating a Fusion of Physics and Chemistry," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXVII (April, 1937), 449-57.

Describes advantages of fusion and presents a list of units for such a course.

148. PIEPER, CHARLES J. "Research Studies Relating to the Teaching of Science," *Science Education*, XXI (April, 1937), 88-97.

A bibliography covering the period from January, 1934, through December, 1936, inclusive.

149. TODD, ROBERT B., JR. "Fusion in Practical Physical Science—An Experimental Course," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXVII (January, 1937), 92-96.
Describes a course for pupils who do not desire or are unable to take a course in chemistry and physics.
150. WOOD, GEORGE C. "A Study in the Establishment of a Norm in Scientific Attitudes and Abilities among Ninth-Year Pupils," *Science Education*, XXI (October, 1937), 140-46.
Describes a method of determining the extent to which members of a class practiced certain scientific attitudes.

MATHEMATICS¹

ERNST R. BRESLICH

151. ASPINWALL, WILLIAM B. "The Preparation of Teachers of Mathematics for Junior and Senior High Schools," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXVII (June, 1937), 651-57.
A description of the type of preparation for the teaching of mathematics in secondary schools offered in State Teachers College, Worcester, Massachusetts.
152. BUCKINGHAM, GUY E. "The Relationship between Vocabulary and Ability in First Year Algebra," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXX (February, 1937), 76-79.
A study of the relation between the pupil's knowledge of words and abilities in solving problems in algebra. The findings are interpreted to show the importance of giving attention in teaching to the vocabulary.
153. CHRISTOFFERSON, H. C. "Trends for Improving Instruction in Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXX (January, 1937), 15-20.
After presenting evidence of the need of improvement, the author discusses three ideas: making mathematics more meaningful; setting up clear objectives; and carrying on a diagnostic testing program.
154. DOUGLASS, HARL R. "Let's Face the Facts," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXX (February, 1937), 56-62.
A warning to teachers of mathematics that content and placement of high-school mathematics must be reorganized if enrolments are to be maintained.
155. FORBES, RAYMOND F. "Mathematics Functioning in Industry," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXVII (May, 1937), 513-19.
Mathematics, according to the writer, has the important function in industry of developing resourcefulness, power of analysis and clear thinking, and a

¹ See also Items 397 (Noyes) and 420 (Orata) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1937, number of the *Elementary School Journal* and Item 436 (Douglass and Michaelson) in the September, 1937, number of the *School Review*.

widening of the horizon of interests—qualities needed greatly in industry. Industry needs mathematically trained students because of the cultural and practical values of mathematics.

156. HARTUNG, MAURICE L. "Evaluating Appreciation of the Cultural Values of Mathematics," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXVII (February, 1937), 168-81.

Stresses the importance of obtaining precise statements of the objectives of mathematics and of securing valid evidence that the objectives are attained by the pupils. Discusses results which have been secured from tests constructed to give evidence of the development of logical reasoning ability in connection with the course in high-school geometry.

157. HEDRICK, E. R. "Teaching for Transfer of Training in Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXX (February, 1937), 51-55.

Teachers of mathematics are warned that the pupil cannot be expected to transfer the habit of reasoning to his everyday life unless they themselves teach transfer daily and at every opportunity.

158. HOWLAND, ELIZABETH G. "Methods of Teaching the Special Products and Their Factors in Ninth Grade Algebra," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXVI (October, 1936), 771-76.

One method taught three special products in succession and later the factoring of these products. In the other method each special product taught was followed immediately by the corresponding factoring process. There seemed to be little difference in the results attained and in the errors made by the pupils.

159. KINNEY, LUCIEN B. "The Social-civic Contributions of Business Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXIX (December, 1936), 381-86.

It is shown how mathematics may be used to develop the ideas of financial management of the home, rent, operating expenses in the home, purchasing, savings, and insurance.

160. MALLORY, VIRGIL S. "Providing for Individual Needs in Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXX (May, 1937), 214-20.

Assuming that suitable courses will be developed for the large majority of pupils, the writer presents a course in mathematics for the smaller group of the more capable pupils.

161. MORTON, R. L., and MILLER, LESLIE HAYNES. "A Comparative Study of the Scholarship Records of Students Who Major in Mathematics," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXVI (December, 1936), 965-67.

The records of sixty-three persons, about 3 per cent of the graduates of Ohio University during the years 1931-35, who majored in mathematics lead to the conclusion that students who major in that subject are, generally speaking, superior in scholarship to other graduates. The only exception is Latin. Students majoring in Latin rank significantly higher than the mathematics students.

162. MOULTON, E. J. "Mathematics on the Offense," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXIX (October, 1936), 281-86.

The writer shows the enormous progress that mathematics has made in education, the historical development of mathematical knowledge, and the significant contacts of mathematics with other fields of learning and with everyday life.

163. REEVE, W. D. "Mathematics and the Imagination," *Teachers College Record*, XXXVIII (April, 1937), 593-601.

Pupils become interested in mathematics, not because of the usefulness of the subject, but because teachers are able to arouse their imaginations. The writer shows how this result may be accomplished in geometry by leading the pupil from one dimension to two, three, and four dimensions.

164. REEVE, W. D. "Mathematics and the Integrated Program in Secondary Schools," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXX (April, 1937), 155-66.

Presents views of prominent educators on the advantages and dangers of the integration movement and on ways of solving the problem of integration. Teachers of mathematics are advised to equip themselves for the task of working out the proper correlation of the mathematical subjects and the correlation of mathematics with other school subjects.

165. ROSANDER, A. C. "Mathematical Analysis in the Social Sciences," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXIX (October, 1936), 289-94.

Offers several examples showing how mathematical analysis might be used in problems dealing with social and economic data.

166. RUTT, NORMAN E. "The Sources of Euclid," *National Mathematics Magazine*, XI (May, 1937), 374-81.

A discussion of a topic of interest to teachers of high-school geometry. The writer concludes that the ingredients from which the geometry of Euclid is compounded are engineering, art, and religion.

167. SEIDLIN, JOSEPH. "The Place of Mathematics and Its Teaching in the Schools of This Country," *National Mathematics Magazine*, XI (October and December, 1936), 24-45, 147-51.

A questionnaire mailed to a thousand persons brought nearly eight hundred replies. One hundred thirty-two of the comments are listed, analyzed, and summarized.

168. SNADER, DANIEL W. "Individualized Instruction in Algebra," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXX (April, 1937), 167-74.

A plan is submitted for meeting the problem of individual differences in an algebra class. The characteristics of the plan are: teaching pupils how to study, allowing them to progress as their abilities permit, setting up standards of accomplishment, giving passing marks only when a minimum standard has been met.

169. STELSON, H. E. "A Comparison of Methods for Finding the Interest Rate in Instalment Payment Plans," *National Mathematics Magazine*, XI (January, 1937), 172-76.
Presents several formulas for approximating interest rates on instalment payment plans.
170. STONE, CHARLES A. "The Place of Plane Geometry in the Secondary School Curriculum," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXVII (January, 1937), 72-76.
An experiment comparing achievement in geometry of a group of Juniors with a group of Sophomores. The writer advocates that geometry be placed somewhere beyond the second year of the high school.
171. WILLIAMS, K. P. "Why We Teach Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXIX (October, 1936), 271-80.
A sound and forceful presentation of the arguments for teaching mathematics in the high school.
172. WILSON, RUTH. "A Unique Mathematics Exhibit," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXX (March, 1937), 128-29.
The department of mathematics, with the co-operation of local business concerns, made up a most interesting exhibit showing the practical uses of mathematics.
173. WOLFF, GEORG. "The Abstract and the Concrete in the Development of School Geometry," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXIX (December, 1936), 365-73.
The subject is treated in three parts: "The Mental Developments of Euclidean Geometry," "The Influence of Pedagogy on School Geometry," and "Practical Achievements of Euclidean Geometry." At the close of the article seven statements express the writer's suggestions as to the movement "away from Euclid."
174. WOLFF, GEORG. "The Development of the Teaching of Geometry in Germany," *Mathematical Gazette*, XXI (May, 1937), 82-98.
A survey of the teaching of geometry in England and Germany, showing the common trend to be away from Euclid.
175. WOOD, FREDRICK. "Sectioning Students on the Basis of Ability," *National Mathematics Magazine*, XI (January, 1937), 191-94.
College students in mathematics are placed in three groups according to the amount of high-school mathematics that they are able to present. Transfer from one group to another is provided for. The plan is satisfactory to students and faculty.
176. WRINKLE, WILLIAM L. "Mathematics in the Modern Curriculum for Secondary Education," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXIX (December, 1936), 374-80.
A list of educational principles is submitted, and a program in mathematics is suggested which aims to conform to these principles.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE

FRANCIS F. POWERS

University of Washington

177. ABRAMOWITZ, NOAH. "Homework in the Foreign Language Class," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XIX (April, 1937), 72-74.
The report of a small-scale experiment comparing term marks of three high-school Spanish classes having optional and assigned outside written work.
178. CARR, W. L. "The Foreign Language Teacher Looks at Education," *Teachers College Record*, XXXVIII (January, 1937), 286-92.
A critical analysis of the relation between the educationist and the foreign-language teacher. A stimulating article and worthy of careful consideration by pedagogically-minded persons.
179. COHEN, HARRY ALAN. "English Grammar and the Teaching of Latin," *Classical Journal*, XXXII (April, 1937), 393-405.
A summary of the analyses of elementary textbooks in Latin used in high schools throughout the United States. Lists concepts of English grammar prerequisite to a successful study of Latin.
180. HEFFNER, ROE-MERRILL. "Notes on Contemporary German Instruction in Public and Private High Schools," *Education*, LVII (March, 1937), 403-7.
A tabulation of eighty-one replies in response to a questionnaire sent to selected secondary schools, public and private, for the purpose of determining teacher procedures and contemporary curriculum schedules for instruction in German.
181. HUEBENER, THEODORE. "Are Foreign Languages Taught Better in Europe?" *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XIX (February, 1937), 48-58.
A comparison of the teaching of foreign languages in Europe and in this country.
182. JOHNSON, LAURA B. "Opportunities for Correlation in Foreign Language Study," *Modern Language Journal*, XXI (February, 1937), 315-22.
Offers numerous suggestions for emphasizing emotional appeal in foreign languages conducive to integration of individual experiences.
183. JOHNSTON, EDGAR G. "The 'New Curriculum' Challenges the Modern Foreign Language Teacher," *Modern Language Journal*, XXI (March, 1937), 387-95.
Argues that the injunctions leveled against many of the foreign-language procedures in the light of the "new curriculum" are fair but not solely characteristic of language instruction. Emphasis is on social aspects of language.

184. KAULFERS, WALTER V. "Need for a New Concept of the Foreign Language Curriculum," *Hispania*, XX (May, 1937), 155-68.
An evaluation of the objections cited against including more extensive educational opportunities in the language-arts curriculum of the junior and senior high school.
185. KING, C. H. S. "Recent Trends in the Teaching of Modern Languages in the High School," *Secondary Education*, VI (January, 1937), 16-20.
A noteworthy treatise setting forth modern procedures as contrasted with the older reading and grammar methods.
186. LILLING, EMANUEL W. "Some Practical Guiding Principles concerning Scraps-Books in Modern Languages," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XIX (February, 1937), 60-62.
Teacher motivation and supervision of scrapbooks will avoid aimlessness of such projects.
187. LORENZ, CHARLOTTE M. "Foreign Language Words and Phrases in American Periodicals," *Modern Language Journal*, XXII (November, 1937), 92-103.
A compilation of French, German, Italian, and Spanish words and phrases found in eight widely read American periodicals during 1935.
188. MIEROW, CHARLES CHRISTOPHER. "When Is a Language Dead?" *Education*, LVII (April, 1937), 459-61.
Contends that no language is dead in which *living ideas* find expression even though it may no longer be spoken.
189. ROLLER, JULIANNE. "Recent Trends in the Instruction of Ancient Languages in the High School," *Secondary Education*, VI (January, 1937), 21-25.
Heterogeneous methods of teaching the ancient languages still exist, but many progressively-minded teachers are now emphasizing objectivity as the criterion of efficient instruction.
190. SAUER, E. E. "What Are the Students Getting Out of Our Language Courses?" *Modern Language Forum*, XXII (February, 1937), 41-46.
An analysis of student evaluation of the benefits of language classes.
191. SKILES, JONAH W. D. "Linguistics in International Relations," *Classical Journal*, XXXII (March, 1937), 361-63.
A brief, dynamic article embodying a part of President Roosevelt's address at Montevideo, Uruguay, in December, 1936, in which he proposed greater familiarity with foreign languages as a milestone to better international understandings.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A bird's-eye view of education.—Introductory courses which attempt to give the student an overview of the whole field of education have become common in teacher-training institutions. A number of books designed to meet the needs of such courses are already available, and another¹ has recently made its appearance.

The author states that, in preparing this book, he has "been guided by the purposes of *orientation and guidance*" (p. vii). Although primarily intended to serve as a textbook in introductory courses in education, this volume is also intended to meet the needs of teachers in the field who desire to be reoriented in terms of current thought and practice. It is also intended to meet the needs of other persons interested in the various phases of the educational enterprise.

The book consists of the following five major divisions: "Education and the Social Order," "Materials of Instruction," "The Pupil and the Educative Process," "Organization and Administration of the Schools," and "Education as a Profession." Several chapters (from three to seven) are used to develop the idea of each division. In all, the book consists of twenty-four chapters and includes thirty-two tables and forty-nine figures.

The book is well organized and well written. The reader is impressed with the extent to which the author, in his discussions of educational problems, has made use of the results of current experimentation, practice, and thought. This use of current materials constitutes one of the strong points of the book and sets it apart from some of the other introductory textbooks. In Part I various educational philosophies are discussed and evaluated in as impartial a manner as possible and in such a way as to be of great assistance to the beginning student in the development of his own educational philosophy. It is in this section that the author makes his greatest contribution. In the next three sections, concerned with educational problems, the organization is largely traditional. The treatment cannot be so considered, however, because of the use made of current materials, because of the attempts to present various points of view with impartiality, and because of the attempts to use both science and philosophy in finding solutions for the problems raised.

¹ Ward G. Reeder, *A First Course in Education*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1937. Pp. xvi+720. \$2.75.

The style of the book is clear and readable, and the treatment is comprehensive but not exhaustive. It is only fair to note that in a book of this sort exhaustiveness is impossible as well as undesirable. Teaching and learning aids are provided in the form of tables and problems for discussion. Each chapter closes with a list of selected references chosen for the purpose of presenting various points of view. The author has succeeded, very largely, in writing a book reflecting his point of view that "... science and philosophy must work together in the solution of all educational problems" (p. viii).

Instructors interested in an introductory textbook or a reference book which discusses the main problems of education and which, in addition, presents the various points of view necessary to solution of the problems, will find in this book a welcome addition to those already available.

LEE O. GARBER

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How to teach in the high school.—"The term 'study,' " says Brink,¹ "may be defined as the concentration of attention upon a series of activities for the purpose of satisfying a felt need" (p. 11). "This word [study]," says Holley,² "will be used to imply the mental and physical activities in which pupils engage when they are making an effort to learn" (p. 280). The first definition reflects a point of view which belongs to the new or progressive education. The second definition suggests a more traditional, or at least a more conventional, point of view. This difference persists throughout the two books from which these statements are quoted. The first book describes and promotes many things that high-school teachers are not, as a rule, doing now; the second tells them how to do better most of the things that they now try to do.

The new high school, as Brink sees it, is concerned with teaching pupils to read critically, to make decisions based on reasoning, to look for the facts, to be tolerant of other people's opinions, and to focus all their experiences on problems that are real to them. He is committed to motivation by felt needs, the methods of scientific thought, and the cultivation of the integrated personality. Since teachers in training and teachers in service have great difficulty in grasping this sort of thing, he finds it necessary to do a good deal of spadework in the way of explaining historical contrasts, curriculum trends, and the newer psychologies of learning. As a result he is limited in space for the more specific material on the actual direction of study activities. One cannot have everything, however, even in a volume of more than seven hundred pages. As it is, the book has a great amount of meat in it. Its organization also appeals decidedly to me. Part

¹ William G. Brink, *Directing Study Activities in Secondary Schools*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1937. Pp. xiv+738. \$3.00.

² Charles Elmer Holley, *High School Teachers' Methods*. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Press, 1937. Pp. viii+514. \$3.00.

I deals with the general problems of motivation, reading, assignment, the library, and the administration of directed study. Particularly helpful is the chapter on reading—a study factor which high schools are belatedly beginning to consider in a realistic way. Part II reiterates the principles developed previously and applies them to the respective subjects of the curriculum. Regardless of the repetition involved in this treatment, it is something that has been much needed in textbooks on method. Usually the writer on method unwarrantedly assumes that teachers can, from the general pedagogical principles, derive the implications for their specific subject fields. Part III consists of one long chapter on the integrated curriculum and its meaning for the direction of study. In this chapter the explanations of the ways in which the curriculum is being integrated are much better than the suggestions for directing study activities under such new-type organizations. Throughout the book extensive use is made of the National Survey of Secondary Education, other national reports and surveys, and relevant research monographs. Chapter summaries and bibliographies are exceptionally fine.

Although Holley's book attempts to cover the whole field of method, it is but little more comprehensive than the book just reviewed. It contains chapters on classroom management, discipline, questioning, measurement, and teacher adjustment, which the other book lacks; but, on the other hand, it contains nothing on the important topic of reading. The author's modernism, while professed and reflected in much of his material, is not so thoroughgoing as to require any special elaboration or defense. He does not find it necessary to take excursions outside the strict field of method to explain what he is talking about. The way in which he derived his materials also makes for a pretty strict hewing to the line. To obtain the principles and the concrete recommendations which make up the book, he sifted special problem reports from students in his classes. These reports, assigned in accordance with a course outline, were based on wide reading of current educational magazines and books, with supplementation from personal experience and observation. Almost any process of sifting such reports, however clearly the sifter kept his own criteria in mind, would be sure to yield a multitude of items the combined effect of which would be a somewhat confusing eclecticism. In this instance the sifter has not failed to express reservations and cautions about many of the things which passed through the sieve. He has tried to show that his own thinking is pupil-centered, even though his itemized account of teaching procedure seems at points to be otherwise.

For the most part the author of this book has had to content himself with setting down the selected ideas and advices in short numbered paragraphs or even mere sentences. In the first two chapters alone he delivers 294 shots of this kind. While all the chapters are not quite so machine-gun-like, the system prevails rather strongly throughout. The result, after all, is a catalogue of techniques from which, as the author frequently points out, the teacher must make choice to suit his circumstances and purposes. The reader's general impression is that teaching consists in doing an enormous number of specific things and

hoping that good may result. The pretest questions and the review questions which accompany each chapter are particularly well drawn up and might conceivably lead, under the conditions of free discussion, to a much more integrated conception of teaching method than the book as a whole suggests.

M. H. WILLING

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A federal project in remedial reading.—The existence of individual differences in reading ability is a well-recognized condition among pupils in high school. Pupils who read poorly, as compared with their classmates, are seriously handicapped in meeting the increasing demands for broad reading in the present-day curriculum. Pupils who do not read well enough to use books effectively are virtually condemned to limited understanding and discouragement, if not to failure. In December, 1934, an attempt to discover effective methods of improving the reading ability of such pupils was started in the Theodore Roosevelt High School in New York City with the assistance of funds provided by the Civic Works Administration. The report¹ of this attempt contains suggestions of interest to all teachers who are wrestling with the problem of the retarded reader.

The report discloses that during the period of the study 64 per cent of the first-term entrants of the Theodore Roosevelt High School were seriously deficient in reading skill. The attempt to correct this condition is described in terms of the methods, procedures, and objectives of "The Reading School"; the definition of silent reading used in the school; the materials of instruction; the results of the program in terms of improved reading ability; the influence of the program on general scholarship; the leisure-time reading of the pupils; case studies of eight types of reading deficiency; the use of the ophthalmograph and the metronoscope; the teacher of silent reading; and the philosophy underlying the program. The program is unique in that a separate reading school was organized within the high school. The reading school was supervised by the department of English, but the teachers of reading were employed by means of federal funds. By this arrangement the members of the department of English were able to make a comprehensive attack on the problem of retardation in reading.

Throughout the report emphasis is placed on the philosophy underlying the program. The interesting and stimulating style in which this philosophy is presented results in an unusually readable treatment for a report of this character. Descriptions of the procedures of instruction are somewhat subordinated to the statement of the philosophy. Teachers who are interested primarily in practical devices of teaching may be disappointed, at first, in this emphasis. It should

¹ Stella S. Center and Gladys L. Persons, *Teaching High-School Students To Read: A Study of Retardation in Reading*. A Publication of the National Council of Teachers of English. English Monograph No. 6. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1937. Pp. xviii+168. \$2.25.

assist them, however, to formulate a working philosophy which will serve as a valuable guide in developing a practical reading program. Although few school systems, if any, have an adequate teaching staff or sufficient funds to carry on a program of instruction similar to that described in this book, the methods of attack may be adapted to the needs of pupils elsewhere.

The need for instruction in reading in high schools is presented in a particularly effective manner. School administrators and teachers, especially teachers of English, will find that the book supplies a challenging stimulus to provide some type of instruction for the retarded reader.

J. M. McCALLISTER

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A bibliography of recent tests and books on measurement.—Standardized tests have been published with such frequency in recent years that it has become almost impossible for even the specialists in educational measurement to keep informed about all of them. Various bibliographies of tests have appeared from time to time, which are proving useful, but, unless they are frequently revised, they are soon out of date. To meet the need for up-to-date information about new tests, the publication of a new series of bulletins was begun at Rutgers University in 1935. The third number¹ of this series, which was published recently, deserves special mention because of certain features not included in the preceding bulletins.

The first bulletin in the series consisted of a bibliography of the educational, psychological, and personality tests of 1933 and 1934. The year 1933 was chosen as a starting point because Gertrude H. Hildreth's bibliography (*A Bibliography of Mental Tests and Rating Scales*. New York: Psychological Corporation, 1933) includes most of the tests preceding that date. The second bulletin included the tests of 1933, 1934, and 1935. The first part of the present bulletin is similar to the first two bulletins except that, instead of being cumulative, it includes only the tests of 1936 and the tests omitted from earlier bibliographies.

The value of the present bulletin has been greatly enhanced by the inclusion of a new section which lists books, monographs, and pamphlets on measurement published in the years 1933-36, inclusive, and quotes excerpts from reviews of these publications. The book-review excerpts have been taken from numerous magazines, both American and English. The bibliography of books is followed by an exceptionally complete directory of publishers and index, a periodical directory and index, an index by titles, and an index by authors.

The utility of a bibliography of tests depends mainly on three items: (1) the completeness of the list of titles, (2) the accuracy of the information given

¹ Oscar K. Buros, *Educational, Psychological, and Personality Tests of 1936: Including a Bibliography and Book Review Digest of Measurement Books and Monographs of 1933-36*. Studies in Education, No. 11. Rutgers University Bulletin, Vol. XIV, No. 2A. New Brunswick, New Jersey: School of Education, Rutgers University, 1937. Pp. 142. \$0.75.

about the tests, and (3) the nature and the extent of the information included. In regard to the first item the author states in the Introduction that "practically all 1936 pencil-and-paper tests published as separates in the United States and the British Empire are included in this volume" (p. 5). The reviewer investigated the second item by sample checking of the data given for one test on each page—thirty-eight tests, in all. The statements about nearly all the tests used in checking were correct in every detail. A few minor discrepancies were noted, but, on the whole, the bibliography seems to be highly accurate. The information given for each test includes title, description of the group for which the test was constructed, date of copyright or publication, number of forms available, cost, time required for administering, author, publisher, and references when known. All this information is important and, in many instances no doubt adequate, but the reviewer feels that it would have been helpful to have, in addition, a brief descriptive statement concerning each test. Critical comments would also have been useful, but an elaborate organization for evaluating the tests would probably be required if such comments were to be really effective.

If the practice of issuing the bulletin each summer is continued, it would be helpful to have included the tests that are published up to the end of the preceding school year. Several agencies that conduct annual testing programs issue new forms of their tests each spring. When the period covered by the bulletin conforms to the calendar year, the most recent forms of the tests devised by the annual testing agencies are omitted from the bulletin.

According to the author's statement, the "bibliography of books includes practically all measurement work printed in English-speaking countries" (p. 6) during the period 1933-36. If this section of the bulletin were merely a complete bibliography of measurement works for the four-year period, it would be useful; the fact that it includes excerpts from approximately six hundred reviews makes it exceedingly valuable for everyone who expects to read in this field. Many of the reviews are, of course, available in the *Book Review Digest*, but this volume is ordinarily not obtainable except in public or institutional libraries. Moreover, many of the book-review excerpts in the bulletin are taken from journals not included in the reviews reprinted in the *Book Review Digest*.

On the whole, the reviewer feels that the bibliography of the measurement books, together with the review excerpts, is so helpful that a section of this kind could well become a regular feature of future issues of the bulletin and possibly be gradually extended to include related fields and also to review some of the more promising new tests. It is to be hoped that authors and publishers of new tests and other materials in the general area of educational, psychological, and personality measurement will fall into the habit of informing the author of the bulletin about them, for it is only through the co-operation of all concerned that the worthy service which he has started can reach its maximum usefulness.

ARTHUR E. TRAXLER

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Mathematics and the world today.—Every morning we rise at a certain hour because our clock tells us the time. The astronomer, watching the stars through the night, uses a great deal of mathematics in regulating this clock for us. Engineers use mathematics in designing the automobiles, buses, and street cars which we use daily. Bridges and tall buildings present a maze of steel pieces of different sizes and strength in many positions. Someone had to determine the strength and the size of each of those pieces in order that it would stand the stress and strain of the load which it must carry. We are living in a scientific age. Science is rapidly changing our methods and modes of living. All science is built on a foundation of mathematics, and the world is becoming more and more dependent on mathematics for the understanding and interpretation of the sciences involved.

These contacts between the science of everyday living and some of the mathematics necessary for interpreting it have been organized in a textbook¹ for study in Grade IX.

This book, written for the pupil and to the pupil, leads him from arithmetic concepts which he already knows to the techniques of high-school mathematics and constantly emphasizes the connection of the new work with the earlier concepts.

The author has made a conscious attempt to stress the problems that interest the pupil now. These problems are taken from the everyday life of boys and girls, and both boys and girls are shown that mathematics is the foundation of nearly every subject of study. The author's point in using the problems of practical mathematics as the material for the processes of cultural mathematics is that there is no good reason why the useless should be more cultural than the useful.

Some of the features claimed for the book are: (1) developmental approach to new topics, enabling the pupil by a series of questions to work out his own solution through his own activity; (2) systematic grouping of related topics: the formula, graph, table, variation and dependence, exponents, logarithms, and slide rule; (3) an emphasis on methods of thinking, illustrated by a short unit of demonstrative geometry; (4) emphasis on the basic concepts—graph, formula, equation, the construction and solution of problems, relationship and dependence, ratio and proportion, generalization—and the application of these concepts to real problems of life; (5) the grading of the exercises on three levels of ability; (6) explanations written for the pupil; (7) culture through useful material; (8) the use of informal geometry as material for algebraic problems; (9) presentation of the functional material in the earlier chapters, with the more technical material postponed to later chapters for pupils having time for a more extended course; (10) new-type tests and reviews; and (11) the planning of the material to meet accepted standards.

¹ Joseph P. McCormack, *Mathematics for Modern Life*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1937. Pp. xvi+448. \$1.32.

All these claimed features are found in the book. The subject matter is appealing and interesting and is decidedly informational. If the material can be made as meaningful to the pupil as it is to the adult, that alone would be a worthy objective.

The book is well written in language within the pupil's level of ability. The material is ample, almost voluminous. This generosity gives the page a crowded appearance because of the necessity of using rather small type. On the whole, this textbook seems to have a tie-up between the so-called "practical life-situations" and algebra and informal geometry which can be made meaningful to the pupils. The book is worthy of careful consideration.

A. E. MALLORY

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A well-balanced textbook in French.—One of the perennially perplexing problems of the author of a textbook in modern foreign language is how to deal with the problem of the direct method. It would probably not be far wrong to say that many textbooks in modern foreign language have risen or fallen on this one point. Practically any competent author can arrange the drill material, the vocabularies, and the syntactical and grammatical material in a logical and psychological style. A problem such as the presentation of conversational material is far less simple. Some authors assume that, since the majority of students of modern foreign languages will have little use for speaking the language, the best textbook organization is a forthright presentation in English of all morphological principles, the main objective being reading knowledge. Other authors, however, believing that there are intrinsic pedagogical values in the direct and conversational method, throw this method in the forefront, occasionally omitting English entirely and assuming that the teacher will resolve the dilemma through supplementary presentation.

This problem of the balance to be maintained between the direct and the reading method shows itself both in textbook-writing and classroom methodology. Sometimes the practical results are dismaying: the reviewer has heard in the classroom such expressions as, "Now, students, close your *libros*!"

LeCompte and Sundeen¹ have done about as well in their handling of this situation as can probably ever be expected from any author. The title of their book, *Unified French Course*, is not a misnomer, for the volume is both thorough and well balanced, as the following examination of its several parts will indicate.

1. The following objectives, enunciated by the survey of modern-language interest made by the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, are the guides of the book's organization: (a) progressive development

¹ Irville C. LeCompte, and Myrtle Violet Sundeen, *Unified French Course: An Integrated Course for Beginners*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1937. Pp. xiv+600+lxvii. \$1.96.

of reading, understanding, speaking, and writing; (b) mastery of functional grammar; (c) increased knowledge of English; and (d) better understanding of the foreign people.

2. Lessons are grouped in units on the same topic, but the same lessons are also run consecutively, with 150 chapters for approximately the same number of days.

3. Both minimum and maximum courses of instruction are indicated. Special stipulation of the parts to be eliminated for the minimum course are clearly indicated.

4. The minimum program is calculated to produce an abundance of practice in reading and grammar and a recognition vocabulary of two thousand words resolving into an active vocabulary of a thousand words and idioms.

5. The materials have been arranged and selected with the following criteria as guides: directness, validity, adaptability, gradation, interest, integration, dosage, and emphasis.

One of the especially interesting features of the book is a series of cultural essays on such topics as "The Formation of the Race and the Language," "Charlemagne," "The Norman Conquest," "France and the Crusades," "The Maid of Orleans," "The Golden Age of France," "The Lost French Empire in America," and others. These cultural essays are, without exception, excellent, being both well written and informative. They might well have been, however, devoted in a few more cases to modern or contemporary topics of interest.

The book is not profusely illustrated, but those illustrations which are included have been chosen with taste and judgment. The illustrations vivify a wide variety of topics. The inside of the front and back covers, respectively, are given over to maps of Paris and France. These maps are economic rather than strictly geographical.

Another especially commendable feature is the way in which the maximum and the minimum courses are set up. Certain material (starred in the book) is especially designed for pupils and classes above the mean in ability and willingness to work. The main course of instruction has not been dropped to the capacity of the lowest stratum of learning ability, but the approximation is near enough so that any students of reasonably good ability should have no difficulty. Especially in the cultural essays, where linguistic aptitude is not involved, the mediocre student is given an opportunity to attain at least two of the major objectives.

The format of the book is good, and the construction appears to be more than ordinarily durable. Print is clear and easily read, and there are the usual English-French and French-English vocabularies. The index is inclusive but slightly overcondensed. On the whole, both the authors and the publishers have done a workmanlike job, and in the hands of a capable teacher this textbook will give a type of training that merits a place in any curriculum.

FRANCIS F. POWERS

UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON

The constitution and everything.—In recent years the United States government has been spending rather large sums on celebrations. The anniversary of the birthday of Washington called for a large commission with good salaries throughout a period of several years, for extensive syllabi, and for the writing of a so-called "song." In 1935 Congress created the Constitution Sesquicentennial Commission to act as cheerleaders for the nation during the period from September, 1937, to April, 1939. The Constitution is now the object of devotion and reverence, not so much the constitution under which we live and operate, but the original document. These official cheering squads may revive democratic faith and inspire some patriotic fervor, but, in the opinion of this reviewer, much of their work is needless, flat, and educationally unsound. It seems more likely to inspire chauvinism rather than patriotism, respect for externals rather than insight into realities, and worship of forms rather than understanding of functions. In the distant future some Congress may realize that its members are not necessarily educators, and it may in a spirit of humility call on the educators to assume the tasks which the politicians have too lightheartedly undertaken. Until that day arrives, it might be a good idea to create a national commission to prevent the creation of national commissions that have for their objective the intensification of patriotism.

The Sesquicentennial Commission has issued a paper-covered booklet on the Constitution,¹ which contains a running commentary on the development of the Constitution, portraits of the signers, textual copies, resolutions of the Convention and of the Continental Congress, a tabular analysis of the Constitution, a copy of the Declaration of Independence, Washington's "Farewell Address," portraits of the Chief Justices, questions and answers, and other data and materials. A booklet that contains such extensive and varied materials is bound to be useful and convenient. The Constitutional Fathers deserve the attention which they receive, and the inevitable omission of two portraits is evidence of the early neglect of these worthy men.

A compilation of this nature is subject to few criticisms. It is possible that the author minimizes the part which the states played and exalts unduly the "people." The book opens with a statement that rests on imagination, for the proof that Columbus ever saw Henry VII is by no means conclusive. The erroneous notion that England has only an unwritten constitution appears on page 32. Incidentally, this error reveals the failure of the author to realize that the constitution is a *process* as well as a *document*. In fact, this emphasis on the document tends to obscure the vital elements of our constitution which are embodied in the Northwest Ordinance, in court decisions, and in administrative practice. The questions and answers concerning the Constitution reveal the strength and the weakness of the catechetical method. On page 178, for example, the answer to the question whether the Supreme Court can nullify a law passed by Congress is mere legal quibbling. The method leads inevitably

¹ Sol Bloom, *The Story of the Constitution*. Washington: United States Constitution Sesquicentennial Commission (House Office Building), 1937. Pp. 192.

to oversimplification. In view of the scope of the book it seems unfortunate that the presidents of the Continental Congress receive no attention, and the omission of the Northwest Ordinance is a fundamental oversight. While the book is a compilation and is consequently lacking in unity and style, it should serve a useful purpose in the schools, especially for senior high school classes in government.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

EDGAR B. WESLEY

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

- HARRISON, MARGARET. *Radio in the Classroom: Objectives, Principles, and Practices*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937. Pp. xvi+260. \$2.50.
- JENKINS, RALPH C., and WARNER, GERTRUDE CHANDLER. *Henry Barnard: An Introduction*. Hartford, Connecticut: Connecticut State Teachers Association. Pp. 118.
- KESING, FELIX M. *Education in Pacific Countries*. Interpreting a Seminar-Conference of Educators and Social Scientists Conducted by the University of Hawaii and Yale University, Honolulu, Hawaii, 1936. Shanghai, China: Kelly & Walsh, Ltd., 1937. Pp. viii+226. \$1.50. Distributors of American edition: University of Hawaii Bookstore, Honolulu, Hawaii.
- MORRISON, HENRY C. *School and Commonwealth: Addresses and Essays*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937. Pp. x+238. \$2.50.
- The Role of the Library in Adult Education: Papers Presented before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago, August 2-13, 1937*. Edited with an Introduction by Louis R. Wilson. The University of Chicago Studies in Library Science. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937. Pp. xii+322. \$2.00.
- STANGER, MARGARET A., and DONAHUE, ELLEN K. *Prediction and Prevention of Reading Difficulties*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1937. Pp. x+192. \$2.00.
- What About Survey Courses?* Edited by B. Lamar Johnson. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1937. Pp. xii+378.

BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- BALTIMORE COUNTY, MARYLAND, PUBLIC SCHOOLS. *Course of Study in English: Part I, Grades I-III*, pp. xvi+240; *Part II, Grades IV-VI*, pp. xiv+236; *Part III, Grades VII-IX*, pp. xiv+240. Baltimore, Maryland: Warwick & York, Inc., 1937. \$1.40 each.
- BANCROFT, JESSIE H. *Games*. Revised and Enlarged Edition of *Games for the Playground, Home, School, and Gymnasium*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1937. Pp. x+686. \$3.00.

- BENNETT, MARGARET E., and HAND, HAROLD C. *School and Life*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xiv+186. \$1.24.
- BROENING, ANGELA M.; FLAGG, WILLIAM J.; FLEAGLE, BENJAMIN E.; HOWARD, ETHEL; LITZ, FRANCIS E.; and MOOG, KATHERINE E. *English As You Like It: Ninth Year*, pp. xvi+254; *Tenth Year*, pp. xvi+250. New York: Harper & Bros., 1937. \$1.08 each.
- COYLE, DAVID CUSHMAN. *Why Pay Taxes*. Washington: National Home Library Foundation, 1937. Pp. 182. \$0.25.
- DESAUZÉ, E. B., and DUREAU, AGNÈS M. *Un peu de tout*. Second French Reader. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1937. Pp. viii+380. \$1.96.
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